A GRAMMAR

OF THE

IRISH LANGUAGE

BY

P. W. JOYCE, LL.D., T.C.D., M.R.I.A.

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Declension

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DUBLIN

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PREFACE.

THOUGH this text-book is small, it comprises, I believe, everything necessary—so far as grammar is concerned—for a student of modern Irish. I have not treated at all of the ancient forms of the language; and I have excluded everything in the shape of dissertation: the grammar of the modern Irish language, and no more, is here set forth in words as few and simple as possible.

I have not suggested any changes either in spelling or in grammatical forms, or attempted innovation of any kind: this is a grammar of the language as it actually exists in the works of our best writers.

All the illustrative examples are quotations from standard Irish writings; but though I retain the references, I have not given them in the grammar, as they would encumber the book, and impede, rather than facilitate the learner. I may mention here, however, that the works from which the examples are chiefly taken, are, those of Keating, the publications of the Ossianic Society, "The Three Sorrowful Stories of Erin" (viz., "The Fate of the Children of Usna," "The Fate of the Children of Lir," and "The Fate of the Children of Turenn"), and occasionally the "Annals of the Four Masters." The language of the various works published by the Archæological and Celtic Societies is generally too antiquated to be quoted in a grammar of modern Irish.

I have all through given word-for-word translations of the examples; free translations would have been more pleasant to read, but would have added considerably to the learner's difficulty.

In the last Part—"Idioms"—I have given a popular rather than a scientific explanation of the principal idioms of the language. Nothing like this is to be found in any other Irish Grammar; and I believe that the learner who masters it will be saved much labour and perplexity.

There are several other Irish Grammars, but none low enough in price to be within reach of the many. Whoever wishes to study the Irish language in its ancient as well as in its modern forms, must procure O'Donovan's Grammar; without this great work no one can attain a thorough knowledge of the language. I may also mention " The College Irish Grammar," by the Rev. Ulick J. Canon Bourke, in which there is a great amount of miscellaneous information on the language, proverbs, and popular literature of Ireland.

The labours of the Society for the Preservation of the Irish Language have lately given a great impetus to Celtic studies. The Society has produced two admirable little elementary books (the First and Second Irish Books) and are about to bring out a third all drawn up by the members themselves on the plan of the elementary works of Smith, Arnold, Ahn, &c. But the want of a very cheap and simple text-book on Irish Grammar has been much felt; and this Grammar has been written to supply the want. I have written it with the cognisance of the Council of the Society, of which I am myself a member. It was at first intended that the name of the Society should appear on the title-page along with my own name, and a resolution to that effect was passed by the Council. But I found some difficulty as to the exact words, and I have accordingly contented myself with mentioning the matter here.

I acknowledge with thanks that I have received valuable assistance from several gentlemen of the Society, who read every word of my proofs, suggesting various corrections, alterations, and improvements. One member in particular, Mr. John Fleming of Rathgormuck, in the county Waterford, read all my manuscript in the first instance, and all the proof-sheets afterwards. Mr. Fleming's assistance was invaluable to me, for he possesses an intimate knowledge of modern Irish Grammar, language, and literature, and what is still better, much sound sense and clear critical judgment.

Dublin, November, 1878.

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PART I.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

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CHAPTER I.

SOUNDS.

I. LETTERS.

1. The Irish alphabet consists of eighteen letters, of which thirteen are consonants and five are vowels.

2. The five vowels are a, e, ı, o, u; of which a, o, u are broad, and e, ı are slender.

3. Each consonant (with the exceptions mentioned below) has a broad and a slender sound. When a consonant comes immediately after or before a broad vowel, it has its broad sound: when it comes after or before a slender vowel, it has its slender sound. But this does not apply to b, Ᵹ, h, m, p, each of which has one sound only, whether joined with a broad vowel or a slender vowel.

4. Vowels are either long or short. A long vowel is usually marked by an accent; as bán, white: a short vowel has no mark; as mac, a son.

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5. The Irish vowels, like the English, have an obscure sound in unaccented syllables, of which it is not necessary to take further notice here.

6. The following are the usual sounds of the Irish letters, so far as they can be represented by English letters.

7. Those marked with asterisks are only imperfectly represented in sound by the corresponding English letters: those not so marked are represented perfectly or very nearly so.

8. The sounds of the marked letters must be learned by ear: it is hardly possible to give in writing such a description of them as would enable a learner to utter them.

9. C is equal to *k*, yet when it comes before the diphthong ɑo or the triphthong ɑoı, beginners find it very hard to sound it: cɑol (narrow) is neither *kail* or *quail*, but something between: cɑoın (gentle) is neither *keen* or *queen*, but something between.

10. So also with ʒ, which (broad and slender) is equal to *g* in *got* and *get*: yet ʒɑol is hard for a beginner to utter, being neither *gail* nor *gwail*, but something between.

11. The Irish broad ð and c bear the same relation to each other as the English *d* and *t*; that is, the first in each case is flat or soft, and the second sharp or hard. English *d* and *t* are sounded by placing the tip of the tongue against the roof of the mouth: Irish ð and c by placing the top of the tongue against the upper front teeth. Irish ð and c may be described in another way: the two sounds of *th* in *those* and *thumb* are both *continuous*, the first flat, the second sharp. Now the two *explosive* sounds corresponding to these two continuous sounds (i.e., with the tongue in the same position), are exactly the Irish ð and c.

12. Broad l and n are sounded by placing the top of the tongue (not against the roof of the mouth as in case of English *l* and *n* but) against the upper front teeth. Irish ð and c are to English *d* and *t* as Irish l or n to English *l* or *n*.

13. Slender n is the most difficult of all the Irish consonantal sounds: and learners, unless they have acquired it in youth, often fail to articulate it correctly, though the teacher may sound it over and over again for their imitation.

14. As h represents a mere breathing or aspiration and not an articulate sound, and as it never begins a word, some writers exclude it from the letters, thus making seventeen instead of eighteen, as given here.

TABLE OF SOUNDS.

Letters. Irish.	Letters. Eng.	Vowel long or short.	Consonant broad or slender.	Irish sounds.	Corresponding English sounds.
α	a	a	long	..	lán	lawn, ball
,,	,,		short	..	mac	bat or what
ḃ b	b		..	..	ball	ban
c c	c		..	broad	cab	cob
,,	,,		..	slender	cınn	king
ḋ ḃ	d		..	broad	ḃall	those
,,	,,		..	slender	ḃıan	cordial
e e	e		long	..	mé	date
,,	,,		short	..		met
Ḟ ḟ	f		..	..	fınn	fin
ᵹ ᵹ	g		..	broad	ᵹoṛc	got
,,	,,		..	slender	ᵹeıṛ	get, gimlet
h h	h		..	..	a h-anam	hammer
ı ı	i		long	..	mín	seen
,,	,,		short	..	mın	pin
* ı̇ ı̇	l		..	broad	lón	lone
,,	,,		..	slender	fıle	vermilion
m m	m		..	..	mıl	mill
* N n	n		..	broad	nóṛ	none
,,	,,		..	slender	neaḃ	new
o o	o		long	..	móṛ	more
,,	,,		short	..	ḃoṛ	love, run
p p	p		..	..	poc	pore
℞ ṛ	r		..	broad	ṛóḃ	road
,,	,,		..	slender	cuıṛ	clarion
* ṡ ʃ	s		..	broad	ṛona	son
,,	,,		..	slender	ṛín	sheen
* c c	t		..	broad	com	thumb
,,	,,		..	slender	ceıne	courteous
* u u	u		long	...	múṛ	moor, rude
,,	,,		short	...	muc	put, bull

15. The following are the native names of the Irish letters, but they need not be used by the learner. All or most of them are the names of trees. Aılm, a; beıċ, b; coll, c; ḃaıṛ, d; eaḃa, e; peaṛn, f; ᵹoṛc, g; uaċ, h; ıoᵹa, i; luıṛ, l; muın, m; nuın, n; oıṛ or onn, o; peıċ-ḃoᵹ, p; ṛuıṛ, r; ṛuıl, s; ceıne, t; úṛ, u.

II. DIPHTHONGS.

1. There are thirteen diphthongs in the Irish language—viz., ae, ao, eu, ia, ua, ai, ea, ei, eo, io, iu, oi, ui; of which the first five are always long, and the remaining eight are sometimes long and sometimes short.

2. The following are the sounds of the five long diphthongs :—

3. ae sounds like *ay* in *slay ;* as ꞃae, the moon, pronounced *ray.*

4. ao, in the southern half of Ireland, sounds nearly like *way,* and in the west and north-west somewhat like *we.* Thus maoꞃ, a steward, is pronounced like *mwair* in the south, and like *mweer* in the west and north-west.

5. eu like *ai* in *lair ;* as in ꞃeuꞃ, grass, pronounced *fair.*

6. ia like *ee* in *beer ;* as in ciaꞃ, dark-coloured, pronounced *keer.*

7. ua nearly like *oe* in *doer ;* as in luan, Monday, pronounced *loo-an.*

8. The following are the sounds of the eight diphthongs that are sometimes long and sometimes short. When these diphthongs are long there is an accent over one of the vowels : when short there is no accent.

9. ái long has an accent over the a, and sounds something like the *awi* in *drawing ;* as in cáiꞃ, tribute, pronounced *caw-in.*

ai short is sounded something like the *a* in *valiant* or the *o* in *collier ;* as in maiċ, good, whose sound is very nearly represented by *moh.*

In Ulster, ai short is pronounced like short *e* in *bell ;* as in aiꞃioc, restitution, which is pronounced *eshoc* in the north, and *ashoc* in the south and west.

10. éa long has an accent over the e, and sounds

like *ea* in *bear;* thus méaρ, a finger, is pronounced *mare.*

ea short sounds like *ea* in *heart* (but shorter); as in ρeaρ, knowledge, pronounced *fass.*

11. éι long has an accent over the e, and sounds like *ei* in *rein;* as ρéιm, a course, pronounced *raim.*

eι short, like *e* in *sell;* as in ceιρ, a basket, sounded like *kesh.*

12. eó long has an accent over the o, and is sounded nearly like long English *o* with a slight sound of *y* before it; as in ceól, music, which will be correctly pronounced if a *k* sound is put before the word *yole.*

eo short, nearly like *u* in *shut,* with *y* before it; as in beoċ, drink.

Note.—This diphthong is short in only a very few words.

13. ío long has an accent over the ι, and sounds very like *ea* in *hear;* as in ρíon, wine, pronounced *feen* or *fee-on.*

ιo short, nearly like short *i;* as in mιoρρ, myrrh, which has nearly the same sound as the first syllable of *mirror.*

14. ιú long has an accent over the u, and has the same sound as the diphthongal English *u* in *tune;* as in ριú, worthy, which is sounded exactly like *few.*

ιu short is sounded like the *u* in *put,* with a *y* before it; as in ρlιuċ, wet.

15. óι long has an accent over the o, and is sounded like the *owi* in *owing;* as in ρóιl, a while, pronounced *fò-il.*

oι short like the *o* in *love,* with a very short *i* at the end; as in coιl, the will.

16. úι long, with an accent over the u, is sounded like *ooi* in *cooing;* as ρúιl, the eye, pronounced *soo-il.*

uí long, with an accent over the ı, has nearly the
same sound as *we*; as in buíðe, yellow, which is
pronounced *bwee*.

uı short is like the *ui* in *quill*; as in puıreóᵹ, a
lark, pronounced *fwishoge*.

III. TRIPHTHONGS.

1. There are commonly reckoned five triphthongs,
which are always long:—aoı, eoı, ıaı, ıuı, uaı.

2. Aoı is sounded very like *we*, as in maoın,
wealth, pronounced *mween*.

3. Eoı is sounded like the *yoi* in the combination
yō-ing; as in peoıl, flesh, which will be correctly
pronounced if the sound of *f* is put before the
combination *yō-il*.

4. Iaı is sounded like *eei* in *seeing*; as ᴌıaıᵹ, a
physician.

5. Iuı like the *ewi* in *mewing*; as cıuın, gentle.

6. Uaı like *ooi* in *cooing*; as buaıl, strike, which
is sounded *boo-il*.

7. The preceding attempts to represent the sounds of the
diphthongs and triphthongs are in many cases mere approxima-
tions. The student must hear them pronounced, and in no
other way is it possible to learn to sound them correctly.

IV. VARIOUS SOUNDS.

1. A and o before m, nn, ʟʟ, or nᵹ, in mono-
syllables, and often before nᴄ and nc, are sounded
in Munster like the *ou* in *foul*; as cam, crooked,
and coʟʟ, hazel, pronounced *cowm* and *cowl*; and
ᵹleannᴄán, a small glen, pronounced *glounthaun*:
and o before ð and ᵹ has often the same sound;
as poᵹlaım, learning, pronounced *fowlim*.

2. Að and aᵹ are often sounded like long
English *i* in *fine*; as paðarc, sight, pronounced

ry-ark; laḃaṗ, a fork, pronounced *lyre;* maṁm, a breach, pronounced *mine.*

3. The termination aḃ is pronounced in Connaught nearly the same as *oo:* thus bualaḃ, striking, is pronounced *booloo* in Connaught, but *boola* in Munster.

4. In the combination ḃl, the ḃ is silent, and the whole is sounded like l or ll; as coḃlaḃ, sleep, pronounced *culla.*

5. In the combination ln, the *n* is silent, and the whole is sounded like l or ll; as colna, of a body, pronounced *culla.*

6. In the combination ḃn, the ḃ is silent, and the whole is sounded the same as n or nn; as céaḃna, the same, pronounced *kaina.*

7. Final e is never entirely silent in Irish as it is in English; thus míne, smoothness, is pronounced *meena.* In some situations it is very nearly silent in the modern language; as in cpoiḋe, a heart, pronounced *cree.*

8. There are some Irish consonants which, when they come together in a word, do not coalesce in sound, so that when they are uttered, a *very* short obscure vowel sound is heard between them.

This generally occurs in the case of two liquids, or a liquid and a mute. Thus loṗg, a track, is pronounced so as to seem, to an ear accustomed to English, a word of two syllables; not *lurg* but *lurrug.* Ḋealḃ, a shape, is sounded, not *dalv,* but *dallav;* peapḃ, bitter, is sounded *sharrav;* boṗb, proud, is pronounced *burrub;* colg, a sword, *cullug,* and so on. In Irish prosody, however, such words as these count as only one syllable.

In the English language no such difficulty exists in regard to most of these letters; they coalesce perfectly in sound, so that each of the above words would be a pure monosyllable.

CHAPTER II.

LETTER CHANGES.

I. ASPIRATION.

1. The term "aspiration" is used to express a certain change of sound suffered by some of the Irish consonants under certain grammatical conditions.

2. It is impossible to give a definition of aspiration that will correctly describe all the cases, inasmuch as the changes of sound vary in kind with the several consonants. In most cases the change caused by aspiration is one from an *explosive* to a *continuous* sound.

3. There are nine consonants which can be aspirated, namely, b, c, ꝺ, ꝼ, ᵹ, m, p, ꞃ, ꞇ; these are called mutable or aspirable consonants; the others are called immutable. The aspiration is denoted either by placing a point over the consonant, as ꞇ̇; or by placing h after it, as ꞇh.

4. The following are the sounds of the aspirated consonants so far as they can be represented by English letters.

5. ḃh or ḃ is sounded sometimes like *v* and sometimes like *w*, and it often has a sound something between both; as ɑ ḃeɑn, his wife, pronounced *a van;* ᵹɑḃɑl, a fork, pronounced *gowal.*

6. Ch broad has a guttural sound which is not represented in English; but it is heard in the pronunciation of the word *lough,* Irish loċ, a lake.

Ch slender (i.e. joined with a slender vowel) has a less guttural sound than ċ broad; as mıċıɑll, folly, in which the ċ sound is only a little more guttural than *h* in *mee-heel.*

7. Ḋh and ᵹ̇ have the same sound. When slender, they are sounded like initial *y* in English; as ɑ ᵹ̇eɑn, his love, pronounced *a yan.* Ḋh and ᵹ̇

broad have a guttural sound which cannot be represented by English letters, though it is something like initial *y* or initial *w*; it stands for the guttural sound of broad ċ in the relation of flat to hard. Both these aspirated letters are silent at the end of a word; as ꞃiaḃ, a deer, pronounced *fee-a.*

But in south Munster the final ᵹ is fully sounded, like *g* in *fig*: as Conċaiᵹ (dative of Conċaċ, Cork), pronounced *curkig* in Munster, but *curkee* elsewhere.

8. Ṗh is always silent; thus a ꞃioꞃ, his knowledge, is pronounced *a iss;* an ꞃeaḃóᵹ, the plover, pronounced *an addoge.*

9. Ṁh is very nearly the same as ḃ, viz., like *v* or *w*; as a ṁiaꞃ, his dish, pronounced *a vee-as.*

10. Ṗh has the sound of *f*, as a ꞃian, his pain, pronounced *a fee-an.*

11. Sh and ṫ are the same as *h;* as a ṗál, his heel, pronounced *a haul;* a ṫobaꞃ, his well, pronounced *a hubber.*

II. RULES FOR ASPIRATION.*

1. The possessive pronouns mo, my; ḃo, thy; and a, his, aspirate the first consonant of the next word: as mo ḃó, my cow; ḃo ċeann, thy head; a ᵹoꞃṫ, his garden.

2. The article aspirates in the singular feminine nominative and accusative;† as an ḃean, the woman. (See also p. 18, Par. 6, and p. 31.)

3. The article aspirates in the genitive singular masculine; as an ᵹuiꞃṫ, of the garden.

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* These rules cannot be fully understood without a knowledge of Etymology. It must be borne in mind that they apply only to the aspirable or mutable consonants.

† Irish nouns have no inflection for the accusative (or objective) case; but it is often convenient to speak of nouns in the accusative, by which is meant the case where the noun is the object of a transitive verb, or sometimes of a preposition.

Note.—This rule and the preceding do not apply to the letter ꞃ. (See also p. 18, Par. 6, and p. 31.)

4. In compound words, the initial consonant of the second word of the compound is aspirated (with a few exceptions): thus from ceann, a head, and bꞃaꞇ, a garment, is formed ceannbꞃaꞇ, head-garment or canopy. (See also p. 34, Par. 2.)

5. The interjections a and O, as signs of the vocative case, aspirate; as a ḃiꞃ, O man.

6. An adjective agreeing with a noun has its initial consonant aspirated when the noun is nominative singular feminine, or genitive singular masculine, or vocative singular of both genders; and, according to O'Donovan, in the nominative plural masculine, when the noun ends in a consonant; as bó ḃán, a white cow; caiꞇ ḃáin, of a white cow; a ḃiꞃ ṁóiꞃ, O great man; a ḃean ꞃeiṁ, O mild woman; capaill ḃána, white horses. (ꝺ and ꞇ are sometimes excepted: see p. 34.)

7. The initial consonant of a verb is aspirated (1) in the infinitive mood by the particles ꝺo and a; as ꝺo ḋéanaḋ or a ḋéanaḋ, to do: (2), in the simple past tense, active voice; as ꝺo ꞃeaꞃ ꞃé, he stood: (3) by the particles ní, not, and má, if: as ní ḃeiꝺ ꞃí, she will not be; má ꞃeaꞃann ꞃé, if he stands; (4), by the relative a, who, (expressed or understood); as an ꞇé a ḃuaileaꞃ the person who strikes. (See also pp. 58 and 60.)

8. The simple prepositions, with some exceptions, aspirate the initial consonants of nouns: as aiꞃ ḃáꞃꞃ, on top; ꝺo ṁullaḋ, to a summit; ꞃaoi ġean, under affection.

III. ECLIPSIS.

1. A consonant is said to be eclipsed, or to suffer eclipsis, when its sound is suppressed, and the sound of another consonant which is prefixed to it, substituted: thus in n-ḃán, ḃ is eclipsed by n

and the whole word is pronounced *nawn*, whereas
ɒάn is pronounced *dawn*. It is only at the be-
ginning of words that consonants are eclipsed.

2. The following eight consonants can be
eclipsed:—b, c, ɒ, ꝑ, ꝫ, p, ꝛ, ꞇ; the others cannot.
Between the eclipsing and the eclipsed letter there
is usually placed a hyphen, as m-bάꝏ; but often
they are put together without any separating
mark, as bpopꞇ. Sometimes eclipsis is denoted
by the doubling of the eclipsed letter; thus
α ꞇꞇαpb is the same as α ɒ-ꞇαpb, their bull.

3. Each consonant has an eclipsing letter of
its own.

4. ɒ is eclipsed by m; as α m-bάꝏ, their bard,
pronounced *a mawrd*.

5. C is eclipsed by ꝫ; as α ꝫ-coll, their hazel,
pronounced *a gowl* or *a gull*.

6. Ɔ by n; as α n-ɒoꝑ, their bush, pronounced
a nuss.

7. ꝑ by b (which itself sounds like *v* or *w*); as
α b-ꝑeαꝛαnn, their land, pronounced *a varran*.

8. ꝫ is eclipsed by n. But this is not a true
eclipsis, for the resulting sound is not that of n,
but the sound of English *ng*: thus α nꝫꞲollα,
their servant, is pronounced *ang-illa*.

9. ꝑ is eclipsed by b; as α b-ꝑꞲαn, their pain,
pronounced *a bee-an*.

10. S is eclipsed by ꞇ, as in αn ꞇ-ꝛúꞲl, the eye,
pronounced *an too-il*.

11. ꞇ is eclipsed by ɒ; as α ɒ-ꞇάl, their adze,
pronounced *a dawl*.

IV. RULES FOR ECLIPSIS.*

1. The possessive pronouns plural—άꝑ, our.

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* These rules apply of course only to those consonants
that can be eclipsed. The rules for eclipsis, like those for
aspiration, suppose a knowledge of Etymology.

ḃuṗ, your; a, their; eclipse the initial consonant
of the next word; as áṗ b-ċiġeaṗna, our Lord;
ḃuṗ ʒ-cṗann, your tree; a b-ṗáiṗc, their field.*

2. The article eclipses the initial consonant of
nouns in the genitive plural; as ceaċ na m-báṗḋ,
the house of the bards; ʒoṗc na ʒ-caṗall, the
field of the horses.

3. When a simple preposition is followed by
the article and a noun in the singular number, the
initial consonant of the noun is generally eclipsed;
as aiṗ an m-bóṗḋ, on the table; ó'n b-ṗaiṗʒe, from
the sea. (See p. 31; see also Syntax.)

4. The initial consonant of a verb is eclipsed
after the interrogative particles a, an, cá, naċ; also
after ʒo, that; muna, unless; iaṗ, after; bá, if;
and after the relative a preceded by a preposition;
as a m-beiṗeann ṗe? Does he bear? an m-buail-
eann cú? Dost thou strike? cá b-ṗuil ṗí?
Where is she? naċ b-cuiʒeann cu? Dost thou not
understand? ʒo m-beannaiʒe Dia ḋuic, may
God bless thee; muna b-cuicṗiṗ, unless thou shalt
fall; bá n-beaṗṗainn, if I would say; an cíṗ ann
a b-cainic ṗiaḋ, the country into which they
came.

5. When a noun beginning with ṗ is preceded
by the article, the ṗ is eclipsed when the noun is
nominative feminine, or genitive masculine, and
generally in the dative of both genders, as an
c-ṗaoiṗṗe (fem.), the freedom; ʒoṗc an c-ṗaʒaiṗc,
the field of the priest; aiṗ an c-ṗaoʒal, or aiṗ an
ṗaoʒal, in the world. But if the ṗ is followed by
b, c, b, ʒ, m, ṗ, or c, it is not eclipsed; as ʒleann
an ṗmóil, the valley of the thrush; loċ an ṗcáil,
the lake of the champion. (See pp. 30 and 31.)

* Rules 1, 2, 3, 4, do not apply to ṗ. See for this letter
Rule 5.

6. The following rule is usually given with the rules for eclipsis :—

When a word begins with a vowel, the letter n is generally prefixed in all cases where an initial consonant (except ꞃ) would be eclipsed ; as α n-αꞃάn, their bread ; loċ nα n-éαn, the lake of the birds.*

v. Cαol le cαol αꞃuꞃ leαċαn le leαċαn, OR SLEN-DER WITH SLENDER AND BROAD WITH BROAD.†

1. If a consonant or any combination of consonants comes between two vowels, they must be either both slender or both broad; thus in ꞃolαꞃ, light, the o and the α are both broad vowels; and in ꞇɪnneαꞃ, sickness, the ɪ and the e are both slender vowels. But such combinations as ꞃolɪꞃ and ꞇɪnnαꞃ are not allowable, because the o and, the ɪ in the first case, and the ɪ and the α in the second case, are one of them broad and the other slender.

2. In compliance with this rule, when two words, or a word and a syllable, are joined together, so that in the resulting word a consonant or consonantal combination would fall between two vowels, one of them broad and the other slender, then either the broad vowel must be made slender or the slender one broad, to bring them to an agreement.

3. Sometimes the broad vowel is changed to make it agree with the slender vowel ; sometimes the slender vowel is made broad to agree with the broad vowel ; sometimes it is the vowel before the consonant that is changed ; sometimes the change is made in the vowel after the consonant. A prefix is generally changed to suit the word it is joined to, not the reverse ; thus when cóṁ is prefixed to ꞃeαꞃαṁ, standing, the word is cóṁꞃeαꞃαṁ, competition, not cóṁꞃꞃꞃαṁ.

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* For a very detailed and clear statement of the laws of aspiration and eclipsis, see the Second Irish Book by the Society for the preservation of the Irish Language.

† This rule is very generally, but not universally, followed in the Irish language.

4. Changing a broad vowel to a slender is called in Irish caoluʒaö (i.e., making slender, from caol, slender), and in English *attenuation*; changing from slender to broad is called in Irish leaṫnuʒaö (i.e., making broad, from leaṫan, broad).

5. Attenuation takes place chiefly in two ways:—first by putting a slender vowel between the broad vowel and the consonant, as when ball, a spot, is changed to baill, spots; or when pá is postfixed to buail, and the resulting word is buailpeá, not buailpá: secondly, by removing the broad vowel which precedes or follows the consonant, and putting a slender vowel in its place; as when ceann, a head, is changed to cinn, of a head.

6. In like manner " making broad " takes place chiefly in two ways, which are the reverse of the two preceding.

7. The following examples will illustrate the preceding rules and remarks:—

8. When the future termination paö is added to buail, the resulting word is not buailpaö, but buailpeaö, I shall strike.

9. When the infinitive termination aö is added to buail, the resulting word is not buailaö but buailaö.

10. When móp, great, is prefixed to cion, love, the compound is not mópcion but móipcion, great love.

11. When ceann, head, is prefixed to liṫip, a letter, the compound is not ceannliṫip but cinnliṫip, a head-letter or capital letter. (This is a case of irregular attenuation.)

12. When the diminutive termination óʒ is added to cuil, the resulting word is not cuilóʒ but cuileóʒ, a fly.

13. When e is added to opöóʒ, a thumb, to inflect it for the genitive, the word is not opöóʒe but opöóiʒe, of a thumb.

14. When the diminutive termination ín is added to capall, a horse, the whole word is not capallín but capaillín.

VI. SYNCOPE.

1. Syncope, or the omission of one or more letters from the body of a word, is very common in Irish.

2. When a short vowel occurs between a liquid (ʟ, n, p, or p) and a mute, or between two liquids, the word is often syncopated when it is lengthened either by grammatical inflection or otherwise.

3. The syncope generally consists in the omission of the short vowel; but this change often involves others in accordance with the rule caol le caol &c.; and is often also accompanied by some slight consonantal changes.

4. The following examples exhibit the chief types of syncope.

5. Lánaṁa, a married couple; plural lánaṁna, contracted from lánaṁana.

6. Lapaip, a flame; plural lappaċa, contracted from lapapaċa.

7. Pocal, a word; poclóip, a dictionary, contracted from pocalóip.

8. Saiḃip, rich; comparative paiḃpe, contracted from paiḃipe.

9. Caṫaip, a city; genitive caṫpaċ, contracted from caṫapaċ.

10. Plaiṫeaṁail, princely; comparative plaiṫeaṁla, contracted from plaiṫeaṁala.

11. Colann, the body, genitive colna, (sometimes colla), contracted from colanna.

12. Capa, genitive capaꝺ: the plural is formed by adding e to this, which syncopates the second a : this would make capꝺe, which again, in accordance with the rule caol le caol &c., is made caipꝺe.

13. Uapal, noble, becomes uaiple in the comparative, by a process exactly similar to the last.

14. Pollup, evident, becomes poillpe in the comparative in a similar way.

15. Aḃann, a river : the plural is formed by adding e; this causes syncope of the second a and the omission of one n, which would make the plural aḃne ; and this again becomes aiḃne, by the rule caol le caol &c.

16. Laḃaip, speak (imperative mood); laḃpaim, I speak, contracted from laḃapaim,

PART II.

ETYMOLOGY.

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1. There are nine parts of speech in Irish, which are the same as those in English.

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CHAPTER I.

THE ARTICLE.

I. CHANGE OF FORM IN THE ARTICLE.

1. The Irish language has one article, an, which has the same meaning as the English definite article *the.*

2. The article changes its form according to number, gender, and case.

3. In the singular number the article has the form an in all the cases except the genitive feminine, in which it becomes na; as caiᵱleán na cince, the castle of the hen.

In the plural number the article is always na.

4. In the spoken language the n of an is often omitted before a consonant; as ceann a ᴛaiᵱᵬ, the head of the bull. And this is sometimes found in books also, both printed and MS., but it is not to be recommended.

5. When an follows a preposition ending in a vowel, the a is often omitted in writing, but the omission is usually marked by an apostrophe; thus, ó an ᴛíᵱ, from the land, is written ó'n ᴛíᵱ; and ᵱá an nᵹᴅém, under the sun, is written ᵱa'n nᵹᴅém.

Very often in MSS., and sometimes in printed books, the apostrophe in such cases is omitted, and the n of the article joined with the preposition; as ón cíp, pán nͻpéin.

6. In the plural the article (na) is often joined to the preposition; as bona, for bo na.

7. The letter p is inserted between certain prepositions and the article an; and this occasionally leads to combinations that might puzzle a learner. Thus ann an leabap, in the book, is written annp an leabap, and ip an leabap, which is still further shortened to pan leabap: also (omitting the n) annpa leabap, and even pa leabap. And in the plural, ip na coppaib, "in the bodies"

II. CHANGES PRODUCED BY THE ARTICLE.

1. The article produces certain changes in the initial letters of nouns to which it is prefixed.

2. These changes are very important, and the learner will obtain a clearer view of them by separating the singular from the plural. For more on this subject, see page 31.

SINGULAR.

1. If the noun begins with an aspirable consonant (except p, c, b), the article aspirates in the nominative feminine, and in the genitive masculine; as an bó, the cow; cuan an pip móip, the harbour of the great man.

2. If the noun begins with p, followed by a vowel or by l, n, or p, the p is eclipsed by c in those cases where, according to the last rule, a mutable consonant would be aspirated; as an c-pál (fem.), the heel; an c-ppón (fem.), the nose; luac an c-ppiain (masc.), the price of the bridle.

3. If the noun begins with a vowel, the article prefixes c to the nominative masculine, and h to the genitive feminine; as an c-acaip, the father; leabap na h-uiópe, the book of the dun (cow).

4. If the noun begins with an eclipsable consonant (except b or c), the article *generally* eclipses, if it be preceded by a simple preposition; as aip

an ʒ-crann, on the tree; ó'n b-ɼocal ibeɲ, " from
the word 'iber;'" leiɲ an b-ɼeaɲ, with the man.

5. But after the prepositions bo and be, the
article aspirates oftener than it eclipses; as ceiʈɲe
céime bo'n cɲioɲ, four degrees of the zone (Keat-
ing); bo leanabaɲ a ʒ-coɲa bo'n ċaɲɲaiʒ, their
feet clung to the rock (story of the Children of Lir).

6. No change is produced by the article in the
singular number, if the noun begins with l, n, ɲ,
b, ʈ, or with ɼ before a mute.

1. If the noun begins with an eclipsable con-
sonant, the article eclipses in the genitive; as
iniɼ na b-ɼiobbaʋ, [the] island of the woods; cailín
beaɼ cɲúiʈe na m-bó, [the] pretty girl of [the]
milking of the cows (i.e., the pretty milking girl).

2. If the noun begins with a vowel, the article
prefixes n to the genitive, and h to the other
cases; as ʈíɲ na n-óʒ, the land of the young
(people); ó na h-áiʈib ɼin, from those places.

These are the only changes produced by the
article in the plural.

CHAPTER II.

THE NOUN.

I. GENDER.

1. There are only two genders in the Irish
language, the masculine and feminine: all Irish
nouns, therefore, are either masculine or feminine
gender.

2. In ancient Irish there was a neuter gender, but no trace
of it remains in the modern language.

3. To know and remember the gender of all ordinary Irish
nouns is one of the great difficulties in learning the language,

as it is in learning French and many other languages. Without this knowledge, which can only be mastered by practice, no one can speak or write Irish correctly.

4. There are a few general rules which will very much help the learner to distinguish the gender of nouns: they are only *general* rules, however, subject to many exceptions; and where they do not apply, the student must depend on practice and memory.

MASCULINE.

1. The following nouns are generally masculine:—

(1.) Names of males; as coileaċ, a cock; laoċ a hero; ⠋eaⱃ, a man.

(2.) Nouns of more than one syllable, ending in a consonant, or two consonants, preceded by a broad vowel; as boiċċeall, churlishness: except (*a*), derivatives in aċċ; (*b*), diminutives in óᵹ.

(3.) Nouns ending in óiⱃ, aiⱃe, aċ, aiده (or oiده, or uiده), when they denote personal agents, as they generally do; as ⱃpealaдóiⱃ, a mower; ⱃealᵹaiⱃe, a hunter; ceiċeaⱃnaċ, a soldier—one of a body of *kerns;* ⱃᵹéalaiده or ⱃᵹéuluiده, a story-teller.

(4.) Diminutives in án and abstracts in aⱃ; as coileán, a whelp; cáiⱃbeaⱃ, friendship.

(5.) Diminutives in ín are of the same gender as the nouns from which they are derived.

FEMININE.

2. The following nouns are generally feminine:—

(1). Names of females; names of countries, rivers, and diseases; as ceaⱃc, a hen; Eiⱃe, Ireland; beaⱃba, the Barrow; pláiᵹ, a plague.

(2). Diminutives in óᵹ, and derivatives in aċċ; as ⱃuiⱃeóᵹ, a lark; cumⱃaċċ, fragrance: and abstract nouns formed from the genitive feminine of adjectives; as baille, blindness

(3). Nouns ending in a consonant, or in two consonants, preceded by a slender vowel (except those in óıp); as púıl, the eye; póglunn, learning.

II. DECLENSIONS.

CASES.

1. Irish nouns have four cases, that is, four different inflections, to express relation :—Nominative, genitive, dative, and vocative.

2. The nominative case is the same as the nominative in English.

3. The genitive is the same as what is called the possessive case in English.

4. The dative is the case where a noun is governed by a preposition.

5. The vocative case is the same as what is called the nominative of address in English.

6. Irish nouns have different forms for these four cases, and for no others. Thus, the four cases of bpaðán, a salmon, are for the plural number, as follows :—Nom. bpaðáın, as ʈpí bpaðáın, three salmons; gen. bpaðán, as loč na m-bpaðán, the lake of the salmons; dat. bpaðánaıb, as ðo na bpaðánaıb, to the salmons; voc. bpaðána, as a bpaðána, ca ð-puıl pıb aʒ ðul? "O ye salmons, whither are ye going?"

7. These four cases are not always different in form; thus the four cases of the same noun in the singular number are :—Nom. bpaðáın; gen. bpaðáın; dat. bpaðáın; voc. bpaðáın; in which it will be seen that the dative is the same as the nominative, and the vocative the same as the genitive.

8. Those cases which are alike in form are distinguished by the sense; just as the nominative and objective cases are distinguished in English.

9. Some writers on Irish grammar have put in two more cases, in imitation of Latin declension; the accusative (or, as it is called in English, the objective) and the ablative. But in Irish there are no separate inflections for them, the accusative being always the same in form as the nominative.

and the ablative the same as the dative; so that it would be only a useless puzzle to the learner to include them in a statement of Irish declension. In certain explanations, however, and in the statement of certain rules, it is sometimes convenient to speak of the accusative case.

10. Different nouns have different inflections for the same case; thus the datives singular of cop, a foot, and ꝺoꝑ, a bush, are different, namely, coiꝑ and ꝺoiꝑ. But though this variation extends to most of the cases, the genitive singular is taken as the standard, in comparing the declension of one noun with the declension of another.

11. There are five chief ways of forming the genitive singular of Irish nouns; and in one or another of these ways, far the greatest number of nouns in the language form their genitive. There are usually reckoned, therefore, FIVE DECLENSIONS of Irish nouns.

12. Besides these there are other genitive inflections, but as no one of them comprises any considerable number of nouns, it is not considered necessary to lay down more than five declensions. The number of declensions is, however, very much a matter of convenience; and, accordingly, in some Irish grammars, there are more than five, and in some less.

FIRST DECLENSION.

1. The first declension comprises masculine nouns which have their characteristic vowel, that is, the last vowel of the nominative singular, broad.

2. The genitive singular is formed by attenuating the broad vowel.

3. In the singular, the dative is like the nominative, and the vocative is like the genitive; in the plural, the nominative is generally like the genitive singular, and the genitive like the nominative singular. Example, ball, a member or limb.

	Singular.		Plural.
Nom.*	baıll.	Nom.	baıll.
Gen.	baıll.	Gen.	ball.
Dat.	ball.	Dat.	ballaıb.
Voc.	a baıll.	Voc.	a balla

4. The number of nouns that belong to this declension is very large; but though they all form their genitive singular in the same way (except those in aċ, in which there is a slight additional change, for which see next paragraph), there are a few which vary in the formation of other cases.

5. Nouns in aċ, in addition to the attenuation, change ċ into ɉ in the genitive singular; and generally form the nominative plural by adding e to the genitive singular; and from this again is formed the dative plural in ıb, in accordance with the rule in Par. 9, page 23. Example, mapcaċ, a horseman.

	Singular.		Plural.
Nom.	mapcaċ.	Nom.	mapcaıɉe.
Gen.	mapcaıɉ.	Gen.	mapcaċ
Dat.	mapcaċ.	Dat.	mapcaıɉıb.
Voc.	a ṁapcaıɉ.	Voc.	a ṁapcaċa.

6. A few nouns make their nominative plural by an increase in a; as peann, a pen; plur. peanna : and some of these are syncopated, as ubaıll, an apple; plur. ubla.

7. In a few nouns of this declension the nominative plural is formed by adding ca or ċa to the nominative singular; as peól, a sail; nom. plur. peólca ; dat. plur. peólcaıb : múp, a wall; nom. plur. múpċa ; dat. plur. múpċaıb.

8. In many words of one syllable belonging to this declension, the attenuation in the genitive singular causes considerable change in the vowel or diphthongal part of the word; thus, copp, a body; gen. cuıpp : ıapɉ, a fish; gen. éıpɉ :

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neaɼꞇ, strength; gen. neiɼꞇ or nıɼꞇ: ꝼeaɼ, a man; gen.
Fıɼ: cɼann, a tree; gen. cɼoınn: béal, a mouth; gen.
béıl or beoıl.

The three following rules (9, 10, and 11) apply
to all the declensions.

9. The dative plural ends in ıb.

This ıb corresponds with the Latin dative and ablative
termination *ibus* or *bus*. It is now very seldom pronounced,
but it is nearly always retained in writing; just as in English,
gh, which was formerly sounded as a guttural in such words as
plough, daughter, is retained in writing, though it is no
longer pronounced.

10. The dative plural is formed from the nomi-
native plural whenever this latter differs from the
genitive singular: otherwise from the nominative
singular.

11. The vocative is always preceded by the par-
ticle a or O, which aspirates the initial; as a Fıɼ,
O man; a ṁná, O women; O ꞇíᵹcaɼna, O Lord.

<center>SECOND DECLENSION.</center>

1. The second declension comprises most of the
feminine nouns in the language.

2. The genitive singular is formed by adding e
to the nominative. If the characteristic vowel is
broad, it must be attenuated in accordance with
the rule caol le caol &c.

3. The dative singular is formed from the geni-
tive singular by dropping the final e.

4. When the characteristic vowel is broad, the
nominative plural is formed from the nominative
singular by adding a; when the characteristic
vowel is slender, by adding e.

5. The genitive plural is generally like the nomi-
native singular.

6. The vocative is usually the same as the nomi-
native, and is accordingly omitted from the para-
digm.

First example, ѕeaṁróᵹ, a shamrock.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. ѕeaṁróᵹ.	Nom. ѕeaṁróᵹa.
Gen. ѕeaṁróіᵹe.	Gen. ѕeaṁróᵹ.
Dat. ѕeaṁróіᵹ.	Dat. ѕeaṁróᵹaіḃ.

Second example, péірт, a worm, a beast.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. péірт.	Nom. péірте.
Gen. péірте.	Gen. péірт.
Dat. péірт.	Dat. péіртіḃ.

7. Nouns in aċ, when they belong to this declension, change the ċ to ᵹ in the genitive singular: thus, cláірѕeaċ, a harp, is declined as follows:—

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. cláірѕeaċ.	Nom. cláірѕeaċa.
Gen. cláірѕіᵹe.	Gen. cláірѕeaċ.
Dat. cláірѕіᵹ.	Dat. cláірѕeaċaіḃ.

8. There are many nouns belonging to this declension which depart from the general rule laid down in Par. 4, in forming their nominative plural.

9. Some, probably over fifty, form the nominative plural by adding *anna;* and these form the genitive plural by dropping the final a of this termination; thus, cúіѕ, a cause; nom. plural cúіѕeanna; gen. plural, cúіѕeann; dat. plural, cúіѕeannaіḃ.

10. Some form their nominative plural by adding aċa: thus, obaір, a work, and or� a prayer, make oіbreaċa and or�еaċa in the nominative plural.

11. When the characteristic vowel is slender, it is often dropped in the genitive plural; as ϝuaіm, a sound ; gen. plural ϝuam.

12. When the nominative plural takes те, the genitive plural is formed by adding aḃ; as coіll, a wood ; nom. plur. coіllте ; and genitive plural as

seen in Oileán na ʒ-coillceaᵬ, the island of the woods (Keating).

13. There are other variations of the nominative and genitive plural; but they do not comprise any considerable number of nouns, and they must be learned by practice.

THIRD DECLENSION.

1. Nouns belonging to the third declension are some of them masculine and some feminine.

2. The genitive singular is formed by adding a to the nominative singular.

3. The vocative is like the nominative.

4. The nominative plural is generally formed by adding a or e.

5. The genitive plural is generally like the nominative singular. Example, cleap, a trick or feat.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. cleap.	Nom. cleapa.
Gen. cleapa.	Gen. cleap.
Dat. cleap.	Dat. cleapaiᵬ.

6. If the characteristic vowel is slender, it must be made broad in the genitive singular, in accordance with the rule caol le caol &c. ; as coil, the will, gen. cola.

7. Sometimes c or ċ is introduced before the a of the genitive singular, which commonly causes other changes by syncope; as coᵬail, sleep ; gen. coᵬalca: buaiᵬipc, trouble, gen. buaiᵬeapċa.

8. This is the case with verbal or participial nouns in aᵬ, eaᵬ, and uʒaᵬ, the genitives of which have the same form as their passive participles considered as verbs; and they are all commonly reckoned as belonging to this declension, though the genitive singular is formed in some by adding

e, not a; as molaᵭ, praising; gen, molᴄa : ᴘíneaᵭ stretching; gen. ᴘínᴄe : caoluᵹaᵭ, making slender; gen. caoluiᵹᴄe.

9. Nouns in aᴄᴄ generally, and those in eaᴘ or ıoᴘ, often, belong to this declension; as clıᴘᴄeaᴄᴄ, dexterity; gen. clıᴘᴄeaᴄᴄa : ᴅoılᵹıoᴘ, sorrow; gen. ᴅoılᵹıoᴘa. But the greater number of those in eaᴘ or ıoᴘ belong to the first declension; thus the last noun, ᴅoılᵹıoᴘ, is often made ᴅoılᵹıᴘ in the genitive ; and ᴃᴘonnᴄanaᴘ, a gift, makes ᴃᴘonn- ᴄanaıᴘ.

10. There are forty or fifty nouns (many of them ending in ıᴘ), which form their genitive singular in aᴄ, and which are reckoned as belonging to this declension, though some writers arrange them under a separate declension; as caᴄaıᴘ, a city; gen. caᴄᴘaᴄ : Ceaṁaıᴘ, Tara, gen. Ceaṁᴘaᴄ : ᵹᴘáın, hatred; gen. ᵹᴘánaᴄ.

11. Those in ıᴘ generally form their genitive as above; but aᴄaıᴘ, a father; máᴄaıᴘ, a mother; and ᴃᴘáᴄaıᴘ, a brother, form their genitive by dropping the final ı:—gen. aᴄaᴘ, máᴄaᴘ, ᴃᴘáᴄaᴘ.

12. Outside the general rule stated in Par. 4 above, there is considerable variety in the forma- tion of the nominative plural.

13. Those in óıᴘ generally make the nominative plural by adding ıᴅe; as ᴘᴘealaᴅóıᴘ, a mower, nom. plur. ᴘᴘealaᴅóıᴘıᴅe.

14. And these form the genitive plural variously; generally na ᴘᴘealaᴅóıᴘıᴅ, but sometimes na ᴘᴘealaᴅóıᴘ or na ᴘᴘealaᴅóᴘaᴄ.

15. Others form the nominative plural either like the genitive singular or by adding nna to it; as ᴘᴘuᴄ, a stream; gen. ᴘᴘoᴄa; nom. pl. ᴘᴘoᴄa or ᴘᴘoᴄanna : ᴅᴘuım, a back; gen. ᴅᴘoma; nom. plur. ᴅᴘoma or ᴅᴘomanna.

16. Those that add nna, form the genitive plural by omitting the a; as ꞃꞃuċ; gen. plur. ꞃꞃuċann.

17. Many nouns of this declension that end in n or l, form their plural by adding ꞇe or ꞇa; as móin, a bog; gen. sing. móna; nom. plur. móinꞇe.

18. And these generally form their genitive plural by adding aꞇ to the nominative plural; as móin; gen. plur. móinꞇeaꞇ.

19. Those that form their genitive singular in aċ (10) form the plural by adding a to this aċ: as laꞃaiꞃ, a flame; gen. sing. laꞃꞃaċ; nom. plur. laꞃꞃaċa.

1. Nouns of the fourth declension end in vowels or in ín, and are some of them masculine and some feminine.

2. There is no inflection in the singular, all the cases being alike.

3. The nominative plural is generally formed by adding iꞇe or aꞇa (with occasionally an obvious vowel change). Example, díꞃne, a sloe.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. díꞃne.	Nom. díꞃniꞇe.
Gen. díꞃne.	Gen. díꞃneaꞇ.
Dat. díꞃne.	Dat. díꞃniꞇiꞃ.

4. Some form the plural by adding ꞇe or ċe: as ꞇeinne, a fire; nom. plur. ꞇeinnꞇe; ꞇaoi, a clown; nom. plur. ꞃaoiċe; and aiċne, a commandment, has nom. plur. aiċeanꞇa.

5. These generally form the genitive plural, by adding ꞇ or aꞇ (not to the nominative singular, as in the model, but) to the nominative plural: as nom. plur. ꞃaoiċe, clowns; gen. plur. ꞃaoiċeaꞇ.

6. Nouns ending in aiꞇe, uiꞇe, and aiꞃe, generally belong to this declension; as ꞃclábuiꞇe, a slave; píobaiꞃe, a piper.

FIFTH DECLENSION.

1. Nouns of the fifth declension are mostly feminine.

2. They generally end in a vowel; and they form their genitive by adding n or nn, and occasionally ꝺ or ꞇ.

3. The dative singular is formed from the genitive by attenuation.

4. The nominative plural is formed from the genitive singular by adding a.

5. The genitive plural is like the genitive singular. Example, uꝛꞃa, a door jamb.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. uꝛꞃa.	Nom. uꝛꞃana.
Gen. uꝛꞃan.	Gen. uꝛꞃan.
Dat. uꝛꞃaın.	Dat. uꝛꞃanaıꝺ.

6. To this declension belong the proper names Cıꞃe, Ireland; gen. Cıꞃeann, dat. Cıꞃınn: Alba, Scotland; gen. Alban, dat. Albaın: Muṁa, Munster; gen. Muṁan, dat. Muṁaın; and several others of less note.

7. Caꞃa, a friend, is an example of the genitive in ꝺ: nom. caꞃa; gen. caꞃaꝺ; dat. caꞃaıꝺ; nom. plur. cáıꞃꝺe.

8. There is a good deal of variety in the formation of the cases of nouns belonging to this declension, which can only be learned by practice.*

IRREGULAR DECLENSION.

1. Some nouns are irregular; that is, they are not inflected in accordance with any of the regular declensions.

2. The most important of the irregular nouns are :*—bean, a woman; bó, a cow; bꞃú, a womb;

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* For additional examples of declensions of nouns, both regular and irregular, see Appendix at the end of the book.

caoṗa, a sheep; ceó, a fog; cnó, a hut; cú, a
hound; Ḋia, God; lá, a day; mí, a month; o or ua,
a grandson. They are declined as follows. (The
vocative is not given where it is like the nomina-
tive.)

bean, *a woman, fem.*

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. bean.	Nom. mná.
Gen. mná.	Gen. ban.
Dat. mnaoi.	Dat. mnáiḃ.

bó, a *cow, fem.*

Nom. bó.	Nom. bá
Gen. bó.	Gen. bó.
Dat. buin.	Dat. búaiḃ.

brú, *a womb, fem.*

Nom. brú.	Nom. bronna.
Gen. bruinne or bronn.	Gen. bronn.
Dat. broinn.	Dat. bronnaiḃ.

Caoṗa, *a sheep, fem.*

Nom. caoṗa.	Nom. caoiriġ,
Gen. caoṗaċ.	Gen. caoṗaċ.
Dat. caoṗa.	Dat. caoṗċaiḃ.
Voc. a ċaoṗa.	Voc. a ċaoṗċa.

Ceó, *a fog, masc.*

Nom. ceó.	Nom. ciaḃ.
Gen. ciaċ or ceoiġ.	Gen. ceó.
Dat. ceó.	Dat. ceóċaiḃ.

Cnó or cnú, *a nut, masc.*

Nom. cnó.	Nom. cná, cnai.
Gen. cnó, cnui.	Gen. cnóḃ.
Dat. cnó, cnú.	Dat. cnáiḃ.

3*

Cú, *a hound, masc. or fem.*

Nom. cú.	Nom. coin, cuin, cona, or coince.
Gen. con.	Gen. con.
Dat. coin.	Dat. conaib.

Oia, *God, masc.*

Nom. Oia.	Nom. Oée, Oéite.
Gen. Oé.	Gen. Oia, Oéiteað.
Dat. Oia.	Dat. Oéib Oéitib.
Voc. a Ohéor a Ohia.	Voc. a Ohée, Ohéite.

Lá, *a day, masc.*

Nom. lá.	Nom. laete.
Gen. lae.	Gen. laeteað, lá.
Dat. lá, ló.	Dat. laetib.

Mí, *a month, fem.*

Nom. mí.	Nom. míora.
Gen. mír, míora.	Gen. míor.
Dat. mí, mír.	Dat. míoraib.

O or ua, *a grandson, masc.*

Nom. ó, ua.	Nom. uí.
Gen. i, uí.	Gen. ua.
Dat. o, ua.	Dat. ib, uib.
Voc. a, uí.	Voc. a, uí.

DECLENSION OF THE ARTICLE WITH THE NOUN.

1. The initial changes produced by the article in the nouns to which it is prefixed have been set forth at page 17; these changes must be carefully observed in declining nouns with the article.

2. Twelve typical examples are here given, corresponding with the several cases mentioned in paragraphs 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6, pages 17, 18; and these examples include almost every possible variety. There is a good deal of difference of usage in the dative singular of nouns beginning with p.

3. The declension of the singular number only is given; the changes in the plural are so very simple (see page 18) that they can present no difficulty.

4. Colʒ, a sword, masc. Nom. an colʒ; gen. an ċuilʒ; dat. leir an ʒ-colʒ (Par. 4, p. 17), or ɖo'n ċolʒ (Par. 5, p. 18).

5. Cailleaċ, a hag, fem. Nom. an ċailleaċ; na cailliʒe; dat. ó'n ʒ-cailliʒ or ɖo'n ċailliʒ.

6. Saoʒal, the world, masc. Nom. an raoʒal; gen. an t-raoʒail; dat. ó'n raoʒal or ɖo'n t-raoʒal (Par 5, p. 18).

7. Saƀóiɖ, the Sabbath, fem. Nom an t-Saƀóiɖ; gen. na Saƀóiɖe; dat. ó'n Saƀóiɖ or ɖo'n t-Saƀóiɖ (Pars. 2 and 5, pp. 17 and 18.)

8. Slat, a rod, fem. Nom. an t-rlat; gen. na rlaite; dat. leir an rlaite or ɖo'n t-rlait.

9. Spól, satin, masc. Nom. an rpól; gen. an t-rpóil; dat. ó'n rpól or ɖo'n t-rpól.

10. Aral, an ass, masc. Nom. an t-aral; gen. an arail; dat. ó'n aral.

11. Inir, an island, fem. Nom. an inir; gen. na h-inre; dat. ɖo'n inir.

12. Leac, a stone, fem. Nom. an leac; gen. na leice; dat. ɖo'n leic (Par. 6, p. 18).

13. Díle, a deluge, fem. Nom. an díle; gen. na díleann; dat. ɖo'n dílinn.

14. Sʒeul, a story, masc. Nom. an rʒeul; gen an rʒéil; dat. ó'n rʒeul.

15. Speal, a scythe, fem. Nom. an rpeal; ger. na rpeile; dat. leir an rpeil.

CHAPTER III.

THE ADJECTIVE.

I. DECLENSION OF ADJECTIVES.

1. In Irish the adjective changes its form according to the gender, case, and number of the noun.

2. Adjectives are declined in much the same manner as nouns; but they never take the inflection ıb in the dative plural (though anciently they had this inflection like nouns): the dative plural of an adjective is like the nominative plural.

3. There are usually reckoned four declensions of adjectives.

4. The inflections of these four declensions follow those of the noun so closely, that when the noun is mastered the adjective presents no difficulty.

FIRST DECLENSION.

1. Adjectives of the first declension are those that end in a consonant preceded by a broad vowel, as bán, white; fliuċ, wet.

2. In the masculine gender (i.e., when the adjective belongs to a masculine noun), they are declined the same as nouns of the first declension of the type of ball, except that the nominative plural always ends in a.

3. In the feminine gender adjectives are declined the same as nouns of the second declension of the type of reampóg.

4. Both genders are alike in the plural. Example, bán, white.

	Singular.			Plural.
	Masc.	Fem.		Masc. and Fem.
Nom.	bán.	bán.	Nom.	bána.
Gen.	báin.	báine.	Gen.	bán.
Dat.	bán.	báin.	Dat.	bána.
Voc.	báin.	bán.	Voc.	bána.

SECOND DECLENSION.

1. Adjectives of the second declension are those that end in a consonant preceded by a slender vowel.

2. In the singular, all the cases of both masculine and feminine are alike, except the genitive feminine, which takes e.

3. In the plural, both genders are alike, and all the cases except the genitive are formed by adding e; the genitive is like the nominative singular. Example, mín, smooth, fine.

	Singular.			Plural.
	Masc.	Fem.		Masc. and Fem.
Nom.	mín.	mín.	Nom.	míne.
Gen.	mín.	míne.	Gen.	mín.
Dat.	mín.	mín	Dat.	míne.
Voc.	mín.	mín.	Voc.	míne.

THIRD DECLENSION.

1. Adjectives of the third declension are those that end in amail, which has the same signification as the English postfix *like* :—bean, a woman banamail, womanlike, modest.

2. The two genders are always alike.

3. The four cases singular are alike except the genitive, which is formed by adding a, with a syncope.

4. In the plural, the genitive is the same as the nominative singular; and the other cases are the same as the genitive singular. Example, maireamail, graceful.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. maιρeaṁaιl.	Nom. maιρeaṁla.
Gen. maιρeaṁla.	Gen. maιρeaṁaιl.
Dat. maιρeaṁaιl.	Dat. maιρeaṁla.

FOURTH DECLENSION.

1. Adjectives of the fourth declension are those that end in vowels; as móρδa, majestic.

2. They have no inflections, being alike in all cases, numbers, and genders.

II. DECLENSION OF THE ADJECTIVE AND ARTICLE WITH THE NOUN.

1. The rules for the aspiration of the initial consonants of adjectives agreeing with nouns are given at p. 10; and these rules must be very carefully observed in declining nouns with adjectives.

2. It may be added here that ὸ and τ sometimes resist aspiration, especially if they follow a noun ending in n. There is much variety of usage as to aspiration of adjectives in the dative singular.

3. When a noun is declined with both an adjective and the article, the initial of the adjective is generally eclipsed in the genitive plural (or takes n if it be a vowel).

4. Four typical examples are here given of the declension of the adjective with the noun. For the influence of the article see p. 17.

An capall bán, *the white horse, masc.*

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. an capall bán.	na capaιll bána.
Gen. an ċapaιll ḃáin.	na ʒ-capall m-bán.
Dat. ó'n ʒ-capall bán or m-báin.	ó'na capallaιḃ bána
Voc. a ċapaιll ḃáιn.	a ċapalla bána.

An ḟuireóg ḃeag, *the little lark, fem.*

Nom. an ḟuireóg ḃeag.	na ḟuireóga ḃeaga.
Gen. na ḟuireóiɜe ḃiɜe.	na ḃ-ḟuireóg m-beag.
Dat. ó'n ḃ-ḟuireoiɜ ḃiɜ.	ó'na ḟuireóɜaiḃ ḃeaɜa.
Voc. a ḟuireóɜ ḃeag.	a ḟuireóɜa ḃeaɜa.

An cnoc árd, *the high hill, masc.*

Nom. an cnoc árd.	na cnuic árḃa.
Gen. an cnuic áirḃ.	na ɜ-cnoc n-árḃ.
Dat. o'n ɜ-cnoc árḃ.	ó'na cnocaiḃ árḃa.
Voc. a cnuic áirḃ.	a cnoca árḃa.

An bó ḃuḃ, *the black cow, fem.*

Nom. an bó ḃuḃ.	Nom. na bá ḃuḃa.
Gen. na bó ḃuiḃe.	Gen. na m-bó n-ḃuḃ.
Dat. ḃo'n m-buin ḃuiḃ.	Dat. ḃo na báaiḃ ḃuḃa.
Voc. a bó ḃuḃ.	Voc. a ḃa ḃuḃa.

III. COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

1. Irish adjectives have three degrees of comparison, the same as English adjectives.

2. The positive is the simple form of the adjective; as árḃ, high; ḟlaiteaṁail, princely.

3. The comparative and the superlative have the same form, which is that of the genitive singular feminine; as áirḃe, ḟlaiteaṁla; and they are distinguished by prefixed particles, or by the context.

4. The comparative has generally the particle níor (or níora or nífra) prefixed, and it is usually followed by ná, than (spelled also iná and ioná); as ḃá an teaċ ro níor áirḃe ná an teaċ rin,

this house is higher than that house : aꞇá an
laoc úo níoꞃ ꞁꞁaiꞇeaṁꞁa ná an ꞃíᵹ ꞃéin, "yonder
champion is more princely than the king him-
self."

5. The superlative is often preceded by iꞃ or
aꞃ, with the article expressed before the noun ; as
an ꞃeaꞃ iꞃ ꞁꞁaiꞇeaṁꞁa ꞃan ꞇíꞃ, the most princely
man in the country.

6. In the comparative, níoꞃ is omitted when the
assertion or question is made by the verb iꞃ in any of
its forms, expressed or understood ; as ba � a
ᵹꞃuaᵹ ná an ᵹuaꞁ, "her hair was blacker than the
coal ;" iꞃ ᵹiꞁe ꞃneaꞇꞇa ná bainne, snow is whiter
than milk ; an ꞃeáꞃꞃ vo veaꞃbꞃaꞇaiꞃ ná ꞇúꞃa ?
is thy brother better than thou ?

7. When the characteristic particles are not ex-
pressed, the construction generally determines
whether the adjective is comparative or super-
lative ; as an ealavan iꞃ uaiꞃꞁe ná ꞃiꞁiveaꞇꞇ, the
art which is nobler than poetry ; an ealavan iꞃ
uaiꞃꞁe aiꞃ biꞇ, "the art which is the noblest in
the world."

8. An adjective in the comparative or superla-
tive is not inflected ; all the cases being alike in
form.

IRREGULAR COMPARISON.

1. The following adjectives are irregularly
compared. There are a few others, but their de-
parture from rule is so slight as not to require
notice.

2. ꞁia is a comparative as it stands, signifying
more (in number) ; but it has no positive, unless
ioṁva or móꞃán (many), or some such word, be
considered as such.

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
beaʒ, little.	níor luʒa.	ir luʒa.
paba, long.	níor paibe, níor ria.	ir paibe, ir ria.
pupur or upur, easy.	níor pura, níor ura.	ir pura, ir ura.
maic, ⎫ beaʒ, ⎭ good.	níor peánn.	ir peánn.
minic, often.	níor mionca.	
móp, great.	níor mó.	ir mó.
olc, bad.	níor meara.	ir meara.
ceic, hot.	níor ceó.	ir ceó.

3. There are certain particles which, when prefixed to adjectives, intensify their signification; and in accordance with the rule in Par. 4, page 10, they aspirate the initials of the adjectives.

4. The principal of these are an, píor, pó, ráp, úp: as maic, good; an-ṁaic, very good: ʒpánna, ugly; píor-ʒpánna, excessively ugly: móp, large; pó-ṁóp, very large: láibip, strong; ráp-láibip, very strong; &c.

IV. NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

1. The following is a list of the most important of the numerals, both cardinal and ordinal.

For the influence of some of them in aspirating and eclipsing, and for other syntactical influences on the noun, see Syntax.

Cardinal.		Ordinal.	
1.	aon.	1st.	céab.
2.	bó, bá.	2nd.	bapa.
3.	crí, ceópa.	3rd.	cpear.
4.	ceacaip, ceicpe.	4th.	ceacpaṁab.
5.	cúiʒ.	5th.	cúiʒeab.
6.	ré.	6th.	reireab.
7.	peacc.	7th.	peaccṁab.
8.	occ.	8th.	occṁab.
9.	naoi.	9th.	naoṁab.
10.	beic.	10th.	beacṁab.
11.	aon béaʒ.	11th.	aonṁab béaʒ.

12.	vó véaʒ, vá véaʒ.	12th.	vaṅa véaʒ.
13.	cᵽí véaʒ.	13th.	cᵽeaᵽ véaʒ.
	And so on, up to and including 19.		
20.	ᵽíce.	20th.	ᵽíceav.
21.	{ aon aᵽ ᵽíce, aon aiᵽ ᵽíciv, And so on, up to 29.	21st.	{ aonṁav aiᵽ ᵽíciv.
30.	{ cᵽíocav, cᵽíoca, veiv aᵽ ᵽíce.	30th.	{ cᵽíocavav, veacṁav aiᵽ ᵽíciv.
33.	{ cᵽí aiᵽ cᵽíocaiv, cᵽí véaʒ aᵽ ᵽíce.	33rd.	{ cᵽeaᵽ aiᵽ cᵽíociv, cᵽeaᵽ véaʒ aiᵽ ᵽíciv.
40.	{ vá ᵽíciv, ceaċᵽaca, ceaċᵽacav.	40th.	ceaċᵽavavav.
50.	caoʒa, caoʒav.	50th.	caoʒavav.
60.	{ ᵽeaᵽʒav, ᵽeaᵽʒa, cᵽí ᵽíciv.	60th.	{ ᵽeaᵽʒavav, cᵽí ᵽíciveav.
70.	{ ᵽeaċcṁoʒa,ᵽeaċc- ṁoʒav, veiv aᵽ cᵽí ᵽíciv.	70th.	{ ᵽeaċcṁoʒavav, veacṁav aiᵽ cᵽí ᵽíciv.
80.	{ oċcṁoʒa, oċc- ṁoʒav, ceiċᵽe ᵽíciv.	80th.	{ oċcṁoʒavav, ceiċᵽe ᵽíci- eav.
90.	{ noċa, noċav, veiv aᵽ ceiċᵽe ᵽíciv	90th.	{ noċavav, veaċ- ṁav aiᵽ ceiċ- ᵽe ᵽíciv.
100.	céav.	100th.	céavav.
1,000.	míle.	1,000th.	míleav.
2,000.	vá ṁíle.	2,000th.	vá ṁíleav.
1,000,000.	millíún.	1,000,000th.	millíúnav.

2. Vó and ceaċaiᵽ are used only in the absence of nouns, i.e. merely as the names of the numbers; but vá and ceiċᵽe are always used when the nouns are expressed; as vá ċluaiᵽ, two ears; ceiċᵽe ᵽiᵽ, four men.

3. ᵽíce is declined:—Nom ᵽíce; gen. ᵽíceav; dat. ᵽíciv; nom. plur. ᵽíciv.

4. Céav has gen. céiv; nom. pl. céava orcéavca.

5. The following nouns, which are all except

beiṗṫ, formed from the numerals, are applied to persons only :—

ḋíaṗ, ḋíṗ, two persons.		ṗeaċṫaṗ,	} seven persons.
beiṗṫ, a couple.		móṗ-ḟeiṗeaṗ,	
ṫṗiúṗ, three persons.		oċṫaṗ,	eight „
ceaṫṗaṗ, four „		nonḃaṗ, naonḃaṗ,	nine „
cúiȝeaṗ, five „		ḋeiċneaḃaṗ,	ten „
ṗeiṗeaṗ, six „			

CHAPTER IV.

THE PRONOUN.

1. There are in Irish six kinds of pronouns:— Personal, Possessive, Relative, Demonstrative, Interrogative, and Indefinite.

I. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

1. There are four personal pronouns—mé, I; ṫú, thou; ṗé, he; ṗí, she; with their plurals, ṗinn, we; ṗiḃ, ye or you; and ṗiaḋ, they. These are the simple forms of the personal pronouns.

2. Each of these takes an emphatic increase or postfixed syllable, equivalent to the English word *self;* and the whole word thus formed is called the emphatic form. The emphatic syllables vary their vowel part in accordance with the rule caol le caol &c.

3. The following are the emphatic forms:— Ⅲiṗe or meṗi, myself; ṫúṗa, thyself; ṗéṗean.

himself; ꞃⰟꝛⰆⱄⰀⱄⱐⰄⰁⰃⰔⱄⰆⰓⱐⰃⰄ — himself; ꞃⰟꝛⰆ, herself; ꞃⰟⰅⰆ, ourselves; ꞃⰟⰌⰁꞃⰅ, yourselves; ꞃⰟⰀⰌⱐꞃⰀⰃ, themselves.

4. The word ꝼⰶⰟⰌⰕ, self, is often added to the personal pronouns, not as a particle but as a separate word; and it is still more emphatic than the particles mentioned in last paragraph:— ⰮⰶⰃ ꝼⰶⰟⰌⰕ, I myself; ꝼⰟ ꝼⰶⰟⰌⰕ, she herself.

5. The personal pronouns are all declined; and they may carry the emphatic increase through all the cases.

6. The personal pronouns (except ⰮⰶⰃ), unlike nouns, have a distinct form for the accusative (or objective) case. It is, of course, only the pronoun Ⱅⰹ that is used in the vocative.

DECLENSION OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

The declension of the emphatic form of ⰮⰶⰃ is given as an example: observe, in this, the vowel changes in obedience to caol le caol &c.

ⰮⰶⰃ, *I.*

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. ⰮⰶⰃ, I.	Nom. ꞃⰟⰅⰆ, we.
Gen. ⰮⰭ, mine.	Gen. Ⰰꞃ, our.
Dat. ⰁⰭⰮ, ⰁⰀⰮⱐ, to me.	Dat. ⰄⰹⰌⰅⰆ, to us.
Acc. ⰮⰶⰃ, me.	Acc. ⰃⰅⰆ or ꞃⰟⰅⰆ, us.

ⰮⰟꞃⰃ, *myself (emphatic form).*

Nom. ⰮⰟꞃⰃ, Ⱞⰶꞃⰹ, myself.	Nom. ꞃⰟⰅⰆⰃ, ourselves.
Gen. ⰮⰭ-ꞃⰀ, my own.	Gen. Ⰰꞃ-ⱀⰃ, our own.
Dat. ⰁⰭⰮꝛⰀ, ⰁⰀⰮⱐꝛⰀ, to myself.	Dat. ⰄⰹⰌⰅⰆⰃ, to ourselves.
Acc. ⰮⰟꞃⰃ, Ⱞⰶꞃⰹ, myself.	Acc. ⰃⰅⰆⰃ, ꞃⰟⰅⰆⰃ, ourselves.

Ⱅⰹ, *thou.*

Nom. Ⱅⰹ.	Nom. ꞃⰟⰁ.
Gen. ⰄⰭ.	Gen. ⰁⰟꝛ, ⰁⰀꝛ.
Dat. ⰄⰟⰹⰕ.	Dat. ⰄⰀⰃⰹⰁ, ⰄⰭⰁ.
Acc. Ⱅⱐⰹ.	Acc. ⰹⰁ, ꞃⰟⰁ.
Voc. Ⱅⱐⰹ.	Voc. ꞃⰟⰁ, ⰹⰁ.

Sé, *he.*

Nom.	ré.	Nom.	ṙiaḋ.
Gen.	a.	Gen.	a.
Dat.	ḋo.	Dat.	ḋóiḃ.
Acc.	é.	Acc.	iaḋ.

Sí, *she.*

Nom.	rí.	Nom.	ṙiaḋ.
Gen.	a.	Gen.	a.
Dat.	ḋi.	Dat.	ḋóiḃ.
Acc.	í.	Acc.	iaḋ.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS COMPOUNDED WITH PREPOSITIONS.

1. In Irish, the personal and the possessive pronouns unite with prepositions, each compound forming a single word.

2. In each case the preposition and the pronoun are amalgamated, and the latter changes its form, so as to be considerably, and in some cases completely, disguised.

3. These "prepositional pronouns," as they are sometimes called, are of constant occurrence in the language—scarce a sentence in which they are not met with: they are therefore of great importance, and the learner should get them all off by heart.

4. The following prepositions unite with personal pronouns:—aż; aiṙ or aṙ; ann or i; aṙ; ċum; ḋe; ḋo; eiḋiṙ or iḋiṙ; ḟá or ḟaoi; le; o or ua; ṙoiṁ; ṙeaċ; ṫaṙ; ṫṙé; uaṙ; um or im.

5. The following are the combinations of these prepositions with the personal pronouns.

6. The emphatic particles may be used with these combinations also, as well as with the uncompounded pronouns, of which one example is given.

Aᵹ, *at or with.*

Singular.   Plural.

aᵹam, with or at me.   aᵹainn, with us.
aᵹaⱌ, aᵹaⰱ, with thee.   aᵹaiⰱ, with you.
aiᵹe, with him.   aca or acu, with them.
aice or aici, with her.

The same with the emphatic increase.

aᵹamⱃa, with myself.   aᵹainne, with ourselves.
aᵹaⱌⱃa, with thyself.   aᵹaiⰱⱃe, with yourselves.
aiᵹeⱃean, with himself.   acaⱃan, with themselves.
aiciⱃe, with herself.

Aiⱃ or aⱃ, *upon.*

oⱃm, on me.   oⱃⱃainn, on us.
oⱃⱌ, on thee.   oⱃⱃaiⰱ, on you.
aiⱃ, on him.   oⱃⱃa, oⱃⱌa, on them.
uiⱃⱃe, on her.

Ann or i, *in.*

ionnam, in me.   ionnainn, ionainn, in us.
ionnaⱌ, ionnaⰱ, in thee.   ionnaiⰱ, in you.
ann, in him.   ionnⱌa, in them.
innⱌe, innⱌi, in her.

Aⱃ, *out of.*

aⱃam, out of me.   aⱃainn, out of us.
aⱃaⱌ, aⱃaⰱ, out of thee.   aⱃaiⰱ, out of you.
aⱃ, out of him.   aⱃⱌa, aⱃⱌu, out of them.
aiⱃⱌe, aiⱃⱌi, out of her.

Ċum, *towards, unto.*

ċuᵹam, unto me.   ċuᵹainn, unto us.
ċuᵹaⱌ, unto thee.   ċuᵹaiⰱ, unto you.
ċuiᵹe, unto him.   ċuca, unto them.
ċuici, unto her.

De, *from or off.*

díom, off or of me.   dínn, off us.
díoⱌ, off thee.   díⰱ, off you.
de, off him.   díoⰱ, off them.
di, off her.

Oo, *to.*

ḋam, ḋom, ḋaṁ, to me.	ḋúṁn, to us.
ḋuıċ, to thee.	ḋaoıḃ, ḋíḃ, to you.
ḋo, to him.	ḋóıḃ, to them.
ḋı, to her.	

Eıḋıɲ, *between.*

eaḋɲam, between me.	eaḋɲaınn, between us.
eaḋɲaċ, between thee.	eaḋɲaıḃ, between you.
eıḋıɲ é, between him.	eaċoɲɲa, between them.
eıḋıɲ í, between her.	

Fá or Faoı, *under.*

fúm, under me.	fúınn, under us.
fúċ, under thee,	fúıḃ, under you.
faoı, under him.	fúċa, under them.
fúıċe, under her.	

Le, *with.*

lıom, with me.	lınn, with us.
leaċ, with thee.	lıḃ, with you.
leıɲ, with him.	leó, with them.
léıċe, léı, with her.	

Le is often written ɲe in books, and its pronominal combinations in this form are often met with. They are as follows :—

ɲıom, with me.	ɲınn, with us.
ɲıoċ, with thee.	ɲıḃ, with you.
ɲıɲ, with him.	ɲıu, with them.
ɲıa, with her.	

O or ua, *from.*

uaım, from me.	uaınn, from us.
uaıċ, from thee.	uaıḃ, from you.
uaḋ, from him.	uaċa, from them.
uaıċe, uaıċı, from her.	

Roıṁ, *before.*

ɲóṁam, before me.	ɲóṁaınn, before us
ɲóṁaċ, before thee.	ɲóṁaıḃ, before you.
ɲóıṁe, before him.	ɲómpa, before them.
ɲóımpe, ɲóımpı, before her.	

Seaċ, *beside.*

ɼeaċam, beside me.	ɼeaċamn, beside us.
ɼeaċaτ, beside thee.	ɼeaċaıb, beside you.
ɼeaċ é, beside him.	ɼeaċa, beside them.
ɼeaċ í, beside her.	

Ṫaɼ, *beyond, over.*

ṫoɼm, ṫaɼım, over me.	ṫoɼɼamn, ṫaɼɼamn, over us.
ṫoɼτ, ṫaɼτ, over thee.	ṫoɼɼaıb, ṫaɼɼaıb, over you.
ṫaıɼıɼ, over him.	ṫaɼɼτa, ṫaɼɼa, over them.
ṫaıɼτe, ṫaıɼɼı, over her.	

Ṫɼe, *through.*

τɼíom, through me.	τɼínn, through us.
τɼíoτ, through thee.	τɼíb, through you.
τɼíꝺ, through him.	τɼíoċa, through them.
τɼíτe, τɼíτı, through her.	

Uaɼ, *above.*

uaɼam, above me.	uaɼamn, above us.
uaɼaτ, above thee.	uaɼaıb, above you.
uaɼa, above him.	uaɼτa, above them.
uaıɼτe, uaıɼτı, above her.	

Um or ım, *about.*

umam, about me.	umamn, about us.
umaτ, about thee.	umaıb, about you.
uıme, about him.	umpa, about them.
uımpe, uımpı, about her.	

II. POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

1. The possessive pronouns, which are merely
the genitives of the personal pronouns, are as
follows:—mo, my; ꝺo, thy; a, his or her; áɼ,
our; baɼ or ḃuɼ, your; a, their. The three pos-
sessives, a, his, a, her, and a, their, are distin-
guished by the initial letter changes of the next
word. (See pp. 9, 11, 12 ; and see also Syntax.)

2. The o of mo and ɒo is omitted before a vowel or before p̓; as m'aċaip, my father; m'p̓eapann, my land. And ɒo is often changed, before a vowel, to c, ċ, and h; as c'aċaip, ċ'aċaip, or h-aċaip, thy father.

3. The possessive pronouns also take the emphatic increase, with this peculiarity, however, that the emphatic particle always follows the noun that comes after the possessive, or if the noun be qualified by one or more adjectives, the emphatic particle comes last of all; and in accordance with the rule caol le caol, its vowel is generally broad or slender according as the last vowel of the word it follows is broad or slender; as mo ċeaċ-pa, my house, or my own house; mo ċeaċ móp buiɒe-pi, my great yellow house. And these again may be followed by p̓éin (Par. 4, p. 40), rendering the expression still more emphatic; as mo ċeaċ-pa p̓éin, my own house.

POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS COMPOUNDED WITH PREPOSITIONS.

1. The possessive pronouns are amalgamated with prepositions, much in the same way as the personal pronouns; as beip beannaċc óm ċpoiɒe, bear a blessing *from my* heart.

2. The following are the most important of these combinations :—

Ann, *in*.

Singular.	Plural.
am, am', in my.	mꞷáp, 'náp, in our.
aɒ, aɒ', in thy.	—
iona, ina, 'na, in his or her.	iona, ina, 'na, in their.

Ɒo, *to*.

ɒom, ɒom', to my.	ɒáp, ɒ'áp, to our.
ɒoɒ, ɒoɒ', to thy.	—
ɒá, ɒa, to his or her.	ɒá, ɒ'a, to their.

Le, *with.*

lem, lem', with my.	leṗ, le'ṗ, with our.
leḃ, leḃ', with thy.	—
lena, le n-a, with his or her.	lena, le n-a, with their.

O or ua *from.*

óm, óm', from my.	oáṗ, ó'ṗ, from our.
óḃ, óḃ', from thy.	—
óna, ó n-a, from his or her.	óna, o n-a, from their.

3. Those that are identical in form and different in meaning are distinguished by the initial letter changes they produce in the next word; as óna ṫiġ, from his house; óna ṫiġ, from her house; óna b-ṫiġ, from their house.

4. These combinations can also take the emphatic increase, like those of the personal pronouns, with the peculiarity, however, noticed in Par. 3, p. 45; as óm ṫiġ móp áṗṫ-ṗa, from my great high house.

III. RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

1. There are three relative pronouns in Irish :— a, who, which, that; noċ, who, which, that; naċ, which not; as an ṫé a ḃuaileap, the person who strikes; an liaiġ noċ a ṫeiṗ ṫo ḃ-ṗuil ṫú ṗlán, the physician that says that you are well; an ṫé naċ ḃ-ṗuil láiṗiṗ, ní ṗuláiṗ ṫó ḃeiṫ ṡlic, "the person who is not strong, it is necessary for him to be wise."

2. Oá sometimes takes the place of the relative a ; and in some grammars it is counted as a distinct relative pronoun ; as ṫáiḃ na ṡaolṫa iṗ ṗeáṗṗ aṡum ṫá ḃ-ṗuil a ḃ-ṫalaiḣ Epeann, "I have

the best friends *that are* (to be found) in the land of Erin." And sometimes ᴅo stands for the relative a.

3. The relative a has sometimes the sense of "all which" or "all that;" as bein beannaċᴛ ċum a maineann ᴅe ꝼíolpaíċ Ip a'p Eiḃip, "bear a blessing to *all that* live of the seed of Ir and Eber;" a ḃ-ꝼuil pan ᴛalaṁ ḃ'aicme Mháine, "*all that* are in the land of the tribe of Máinè."

4. The relative pronouns are not declined.

IV. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

1. The demonstrative pronouns are po, this, these; pin, that, those; púᴅ or úᴅ, yonder: as an ꝼeap po, this man; na mná pin, those women; púᴅ í píop, "yonder she (moves) below."

V. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

1. There are usually reckoned three interrogative pronouns:—cia or cé, who? cá, what? where? caᴅ or cpeuᴅ, what? as cia ċpuᴛuiġ ᴛú? who created thee? caᴅ ᴅeip ᴛú? what sayest thou? ca ḃ-ꝼuil an ꝼeap pin? where is that man? cpeuᴅ ip éiġin? what is necessary?

VI. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

1. The following are the principal indefinite pronouns:—

aon, one.	ceaċᴛap, either.
éiġin, some, certain.	uile, all.
eile, oile, other.	a ċéile, each other.
cáċ, <u>all</u>.	an ᴛé, an ᴛí, the person who.
ġaċ, each, every.	cia ḃ'é, ciḃé, ġiḃé, whoever.
ġaċ uile, every.	

2. The indefinite pronouns are not declined ; except cáċ, which has a genitive form, cáiċ ; and ʒaċ, which is sometimes made ʒaċa in the genitive.

CHAPTER V.

THE VERB.

1. Irish verbs are inflected for number, person, mood, tense, and voice.

2. The conjugation is arranged, not according to the initial changes, but according to terminations.

3. As to the initial changes:—see pages 10 and 58 for the particles that aspirate, and page 12 for the particles that eclipse, the initials of verbs.

I. PERSONS : SYNTHETIC AND ANALYTIC FORMS.

1. The verb has three persons singular and three persons plural; and it has inflections for the whole six in the indicative and conditional moods of the active voice, except in one tense of the indicative.

2. The six forms of the present tense, indicative mood, active voice, of the verb cóʒ, take, are as follows :—

Singular.	Plural.
1. cóʒaim, I take.	1. cóʒamaoiḋ, we take.
2. cóʒair, thou takest.	2. cóʒċaoi, ye take.
3. cóʒaiḋ ré, he takes.	3. cóʒaiḋ, they take.

3. This is what is called the synthetic form of the verb. The synthetic form is that in which the persons are expressed by inflections or terminations.

4. These six forms express the sense perfectly, without the accompaniment of the pronouns (except in the case of the third person singular): that is, τόζαιρ, as it stands, without using along with it the pronoun τú, thou, expresses perfectly "thou takest ;" and so of the others.

5. But there is another way of expressing the persons, singular and plural, namely, by using one form of the verb for the whole six, and putting in the pronouns to distinguish the persons and numbers. This is what is called the analytic form of the verb.

6. In this analytic mode of expressing the persons and numbers, the form of the verb that is used is the same as the form for the third person singular ; and the persons singular and plural are expressed as follows :—

Singular.	Plural.
1. τόζαιδ mé, I take.	1. τόζαιδ ρɩnn we take.
2. τόζαιδ τú, thou takest.	2. τόζαιδ ρɩϸ, ye take.
3. τόζαιδ ρé, he takes.	3. τόζαιδ ρɩαδ, they take.

7. The third singular of the verb is not a synthetic form like the other five, that is, it does not include the pronoun as they do. In the third person singular, therefore, the pronoun must be always expressed in order to distinguish the number and person; unless there is a noun, or that the nominative is in some other way obvious from the construction.

8. But generally speaking it is not allowable to express any other pronoun along with the corresponding synthetic form of the verb:—For

example, it would be wrong to say ꝺéanaim mé or ꝺéanamaoıꝺ ꝛınn, both expressions being tauto-logical.

9. This rule, in the case of the third person plural, however, is sometimes not observed ; for such expressions as molaıꝺ ꝛíaꝺ and molꝼaıꝺ ꝛıaꝺ—they praise, they will praise—are often met with, though molaıꝺ or molꝼaıꝺ alone would answer. And a like construction (in the third plural) is often used when the nominative is a plural noun, both in the present and in the past tense ; as ꞇꝛıallaıꝺ mıc Mıleaꝺ, "the sons of Mıle go ;" maꝛ ꝺo ċoncaꝺaꝛ na ꝺꝛaoıꞇe, "when the druids saw."

10. The emphatic particles may be postfixed to all the persons of verbs, in the same manner as to pronouns and nouns (p. 39) ; as molaım-ꝛe, I praise ; molaıꝛ-ꝛe, thou praisest. And in all such cases, the word péın (p. 40) may be used to make the expression still more emphatic ; as ꝺo ċuıꝛꝼınn-ꝛe péın mo leanꝺ a ċoꝺlaꝺ, "I my-self would put my child to sleep."

11. The general tendency of modern languages is to drop synthetic forms, and to become more analytic. The English language, for example, has lost nearly all its inflections, and supplied their place by prepositions, conjunctions, adverbs, and auxiliary verbs. Following this tendency, the synthetic forms of the Irish verb are falling into disuse in the spoken language ; and it has been already remarked (p. 23) that the noun-inflection ıꝺ is now seldom used in speaking. But all these forms are quite common in even the most modern Irish books ; and the learner must, therefore, make himself quite familiar with them.

II. TENSES.

1. In English a regular verb has only two different forms to express tense :—I love, I loved ;

all the other tenses are expressed by means of auxiliaries.

2. In Irish, a regular verb has five different forms in the indicative mood for tense. Reckoning those tenses only which are expressed by inflection, an Irish regular verb has therefore FIVE TENSES in the indicative mood.

3. The five tenses with the synthetic forms for the first person singular of the regular verb ᵹoıp, call, are :—

(1.) The present; ᵹoıpım, I call.

(2.) The consuetudinal or habitual present; ᵹoıpeann mé, I am in the habit of calling.

(3.) The past, or simple past, or perfect (for it is known by all these three names); bo ᵹoıpeap, I called.

(4.) The consuetudinal or habitual past; bo ᵹoıpınn, I used to call, or I used to be calling.

(5.) The future; ᵹoıpreab, I shall or will call.

III. MOODS AND VOICES.

1. The Irish regular verb has four moods :— The Imperative, the Indicative, the Conditional, and the Infinitive. These are the only moods for which the regular verb has distinct inflections.

2. There are, indeed, other moods, which are expressed, not by inflection, but by means of certain conjunctions and particles set before the verb ; and these additional moods are given in conjugation in some Irish grammars ; but as their forms do not differ from the forms of the four given in the last paragraph, they are not included here.

3. It is only the indicative mood of the verb that has tense inflection ; in each of the other moods there is only one tense.

4. There are two voices, the active and the passive. It is only in the active voice that there are personal inflections; in the passive voice, the three persons singular and the three persons plural have all six the same form, rendering it necessary, of course, that the pronoun be always expressed when there is no noun.

IV. CONJUGATION OF A REGULAR VERB.

buail, *strike.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

Imperative Mood.

Singular.	Plural.
1.	1. buailmír, let us strike.
2. buail, strike thou.	2. buailið, strike ye.
3. buaileað ré, let him strike.	3. buailiðír, let them strike.

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. buailim, I strike.	1. buailimíð, we strike.
2. buailir, thou strikest.	2. buailcí, ye strike.
3. buailið ré, he strikes.	3. buailið, they strike.

Consuetudinal or habitual Present.

buaileann mé, *I usually strike.*

(*The same form for all persons and numbers.*)

Past.

1. buaileaṙ, I struck.
2. buailiṙ, thou struckest.
3. buail ṙé, he struck.

1. buaileamaṙ, we struck.
2. buaileaḃaṙ, ye struck.
3. buaileaḋaṙ, they struck.

Old form of Past.

1. buaileaṙ.
2. buailiṙ.
3. buaileaṙταṙ.

1. buailṙeam or buailṙiom
2. buaileaḃaṙ.
3. buailṙeaḋ, or buailṙioḋ, or buailṙeaḃaṙ.

Consuetudinal Past

1. buailinn, I used to strike.
2. buailteáḋ, thou usedst to strike.
3. buaileaḋ ṙé, he used to strike.

1. buailimíṙ, we used to strike.
2. buailtí, ye used to strike.
3. buailiḋíṙ, they used to strike.

Future.

1. buailṙeaḋ, I will strike.
2. buailṙiṙ, thou wilt strike.
3. buailṙiḋ ṙé, he will strike.

1. buailṙimíṙ, we will strike.
2. buailṙiḋ, ye will strike.
3. buailṙiḋ, they will strike.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

1. buailṙinn, I would strike.
2. buailṙeáḋ, thou wouldst strike.
3. buailṙeaḋ ṙé, he would strike.

1. buailṙimíṙ, we would strike.
2. buailṙiḋ, ye would strike.
3. buailṙiḋíṙ, they would strike.

Inf. Mood. Do bualaḋ, *to strike.* Part. Aᵹ bualaḋ, *striking.*

PASSIVE VOICE.

Imperative Mood.

(*The same as the Indicative Present.*)

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. buailтean mé, I am struck.	1. buailтean rinn or inn, we are struck.
2. buailтean тú, thou art struck.	2. buailтean rib or ib, ye are struck.
3. buailтean é, he is struck.	3. buailтean iab, they are struck.

Consuetudinal Present.

(*Same as the Indicative Present.*)

Past.

1. buaileab mé, I was struck.	1. buaileab rinn or inn, we were struck.
2. buaileab тú, thou wast struck.	2. buaileab rib or ib, ye were struck.
3. buaileab é, he was struck.	3. buaileab iab, they were struck.

Consuetudinal Past.

1. buailтí mé, I used to be struck.	1. buailтí rinn or inn, we used to be struck.
2. buailтí тú, thou usedst to be struck.	2. buailтí rib or ib, ye used to be struck.
3. buailтí é, he used to be struck.	3. buailтí iab, they used to be struck.

Future.

Singular.	Plural.
1. buaⁱlⱡeaɲ mé, I shall or will be struck.	1. buaⁱlⱡeaɲ ɼⁱɲɲ or ⁱɲɲ, we shall or will be struck.
2. buaⁱlⱡeaɲ ċú, thou shalt or wilt be struck.	2. buaⁱlⱡeaɲ ɼⁱb or ⁱb, ye shall or will be struck.
3. buaⁱlⱡeaɲ é, he shall or will be struck.	3. buaⁱlⱡeaɲ ⁱaⱺ, they shall or will be struck.

Conditional Mood.

1. buaⁱlⱡⁱⱺe mé, I would be struck.	1. buaⁱlⱡⁱⱺe ɼⁱɲɲ or ⁱɲɲ, we would be struck.
2. buaⁱlⱡⁱⱺe ċú, thou wouldst be struck.	2. buaⁱlⱡⁱⱺe ɼⁱb or ⁱb, ye would be struck.
3. buaⁱlⱡⁱⱺe é, he would be struck.	3. buaⁱlⱡⁱⱺe ⁱaⱺ, they would be struck.

Infinitive Mood.

Oo beⁱc buaⁱlⱃe, *to be struck.*

Participle.

buaⁱlⱃe, *struck.*

IV. RELATIVE FORM OF THE VERB.

1. Besides the forms given in the preceding conjugation, the verb has what is called a "relative form," i.e., a form used after a relative pronoun. In two of the tenses of the indicative mood, namely, the present and the future, the relative form has a distinct inflection, viz., aɼ, ⁱɼ, eaɼ, or ⁱoɼ.

2. For instance, "the person who calls," is translated, not by an cé a ꝼoⁱɲⁱⱺ (3rd sing. form), but by an cé a ꝼoⁱɲeaɼ; and "he who will steal," is not an cé a ꝼoⁱ�ⁱⱺ (3rd sing. form), but an ɼé a ꝼoⁱ�eaɼ. In other tenses and moods the

relative form is the same as that of the third person singular.

3. This form of the verb is often used even when its nominative is not a relative, but a noun or personal pronoun, to express the "historical present," i.e., the present tense used for the past; as ριαρραιζεαρ Αιμιρζιν α h-αιnim δι, "Amergin *asks* her name of her." (See for a further account of the historical present, p. 57.)

4. And not unfrequently the relative form is used as an ordinary present; as, Ιρ mόρ αn τ-ιonζna liomρα, nαδ δ'Οιρίn ιαρραρ Ριonn mιρε, "It is a great wonder to me that it is not for Oisin Finn *seeks* (ιαρραρ) me."

V. FORMATION AND USES OF THE MOODS AND TENSES
OF REGULAR VERBS.

1. The second person singular of the imperative mood, active voice, is the root or simplest form of the verb, from which all the other persons, moods, and tenses are formed directly, by affixing the various terminations.

2. Verbs which end in a consonant preceded by a slender vowel have all their inflections precisely like those of buαιl (with the exception mentioned in Par. 4, p. 60); and they all begin with a slender vowel (except sometimes that of the infinitive) in accordance with the rule cαol le cαol &c.

3. But when the final consonant is preceded by a broad vowel, the synthetic terminations begin with a broad vowel, in accordance with the same rule. A table of the full conjugation of a regular verb ending in a broad vowel is given at page. 64.

4. The root generally remains unchanged through all the variations of the verb, except that it occasionally suffers a trifling change in the infinitive. The cases in which the root suffers change in the infinitive are mentioned in Par. 4. p. 60: See also Par. 8, p. 63.

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.

1. The present tense is formed by affixing the six personal terminations ɩm (or aɩm), ɩn (or aɩn), &c., to the root.

2. The historical present, i.e., the present tense used for the past, or where past time is intended, is very common in Irish; indeed in many narrative and historical pieces it occurs quite as often as the ordinary past tense in relating past transactions; as, Ɗala lé, ɩomoɲɲo, ollṁuɩʒéeaɲ lonʒ leɩɲ, " as to Ith, indeed, a ship *is prepared* by him" (instead of ollṁuɩʒeaɓ, *was prepared*).

3. It has been already remarked (Par. 3, p. 56), that the relative form of the verb is often used for the historical present; as noċtaɲ Eɩɲeṁón ɓóɩɓ, " Eremon reveals to them."

Consuetudinal Past and Present.

1. These tenses express customary action; as léɩʒeann mé, I am in the habit of reading; léɩʒeaɓ ɲé, he used to read, or he was in the habit of reading.

2. In the sentences, "I write always after breakfast," and "he sold bread in his youth," the verbs " write" and " sold " are used in the same manner as the Irish consuetudinal tense; except, indeed, that the idea is not so distinctly marked by the English phrase as by the Irish.

3. One of the particles ɓo or ɲo is usually prefixed to the consuetudinal past; and the initial

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consonant is generally aspirated; as ᴅo ᵹoiᴘiᴠíᴘ, they used to call.

4. The Irish peasantry seem to feel the want of these two tenses when they are speaking English; and they often, in fact, attempt to import them into the English language, even in districts where no Irish has been spoken for generations: thus they will say, "I do be reading while you do be writing;" "I used to be walking every day while I lived in the country," &c.

Past Tense.

1. In the past tense the initial consonant is aspirated in the active voice, but not in the passive voice.

2. With the exception of the aspiration, the third singular past tense is the same as the root.

3. One of the particles ᴅo or ᴘo is generally prefixed to the past tense in both voices; as ᴅo ᵱeaᴘaᴘ, I stood; ᴘo ᴄoᴅlaiᴘ, thou sleepedst; ᴅo molaᴅ iaᴅ, they were praised; ᴘo ᴠuaileaᴅ é, he was struck.

4. The particle ᴘo, used as a mark of the past tense, is often compounded with other particles, the ᴘ only being retained, but it still causes aspiration in the active voice, as if it were uncompounded.

5. The principal of these compounds are :—

(1.) Aᴘ, whether? from an and ᴘo; as aᴘ ᴠuail ᴘé, did he strike?

(2.) ᵹuᴘ, that, from ᵹo and ᴘo; as cᴘeiᴅim ᵹuᴘ ᴠuail ᴘé, I believe that he struck.

(3.) Munaᴘ, unless, from muna and ᴘo; as munaᴘ ᴠuail ᴘé, unless he struck.

(4.) Naᴄaᴘ, or na'ᴘ, or náᴘ, whether not? from naᴄ and ᴘo; as náᴘ ᴠuail ᴘé, did not he strike?

(5.) Níop, not, from ní and po ; as níop buail pé,
ne did not strike.*

6. The particle po, as a sign of past tense, is
also often combined with the relative pronoun a ;
as an peap b'ap ᵹeallap mo leabap, the man *to
whom* I promised my book. For a further account
of this, see Syntax.

Future Tense.

1. All the personal inflections of this tense, in
both voices, begin with the letter p, which, in the
spoken language, is often sounded like h ; thus
dúnpad, I shall shut, is colloquially pronounced
doonhad (instead of *doonfad*).

Conditional Mood.

1. The particle do, causing aspiration, is often
prefixed to verbs in the conditional mood ; as do
ṗiubalpainn, I would walk.

2. But very often also dá, if, or muna, unless,
is prefixed, and with these particles the initial is
eclipsed ; as dá b-paᵹainn-pe mo poᵹa, "if I would
get my choice ;" muna m-beidead pé, "unless he
would be."

3. It is important to note that the personal in-
flections of this mood in both voices, as well as
those of the future indicative, all begin with p.

Infinitive Mood.

1. The initial is aspirated in the infinitive,
whether the particle do or a be expressed or under-

* See Second Irish Book by the Society for the Preservation
of the Irish Language, p. 53.

stood. But in some cases the aspiration is pre-
vented by other grammatical influences, as shown
in next paragraph.

2. When the infinitive is preceded by one of the
possessive pronouns, the initial of the verb falls
under the influence of the pronoun.*

(1.) It is aspirated for a, his; mo, my; ꝺo, thy
(but here the influence of the pronoun is not per-
ceived, as there would be aspiration without it);
as ꝺá ȝonaꝺ, to wound him (literally to his
wounding, and so of the others); ꝺo m'ȝonaꝺ, to
wound me; ꝺo ꝺ'ȝonaꝺ, to wound thee.

(2.) It is preserved from aspiration by a, her;
as ꝺá ȝonaꝺ, to wound her.

(3.) It is eclipsed by the three plural posses-
sives; as ꝺáp n-ȝonaꝺ, to wound us; ꝺo ꝑup
n-ȝonaꝺ to wound you; ꝺá n-ȝonaꝺ, to wound
them.

3. The general way of forming the infinitive is
by adding aꝺ or eaꝺ, the first when the last vowel
of the root is broad; the second when the vowel
is slender.

4. If the final consonant of the root be preceded
by ı as part of a diphthong or triphthong, the
final vowel is made broad in the infinitive (which
is usually, but not always, done by dropping the
ı); as buaıl, bualaꝺ; ȝoın, ȝonaꝺ, to wound.
But if the final consonant be preceded by ı
alone, the infinitive is formed according to the
general rule in the last paragraph; as mıll, mıl-
leaꝺ, to destroy.

5. The infinitives of many verbs are formed
irregularly, and these must be learned by prac-

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* For the influence of the possessive pronouns, see pages
9, 11, 12; and see also Syntax.

tice. The following are a few of such verbs. Each group exhibits a particular type, in which the manner of forming the infinitive will be obvious on inspection.

Root or Imperative.	Infinitive.
éaᵹ.	b'éaᵹ, to die.
rnáṁ.	do ṁáṁ, to swim.
ól.	b'ól, to drink.
ⲧappaing.	do ⲧappaing, to draw.
cuip.	do ċup, to put.
ᵹoil.	do ᵹol, to weep.
imip.	b'imipⲧ, to play.
inᵹilⲧ.	b'inᵹilⲧ, to graze.
bíbip.	do bíbipⲧ, to banish.
ceil.	do ċeilⲧ, to conceal.
páᵹ.	b' páᵹbáil, to leave.
ᵹab.	do ᵹabáil, to take.
ⲧóᵹ.	do ⲧóᵹbáil, to lift.
lean.	do leanaṁain, to follow.
caill.	do ċailleaṁain, to lose.
oil.	b'oileaṁain, to nourish.
poill.	b'poilleaṁain to suit.
ᵹluaip.	do ᵹluapaċⲧ, to move.
éipⲧ.	b'éipⲧeaċⲧ, to listen.

THE PARTICIPLE.

1. The active participle is merely the infinitive mood, with some such particle as aᵹ prefixed; as aᵹ bualaḃ at beating or a-beating.

2. The passive participle is generally formed by adding ⲧe or ċe when the last vowel of the root is slender, and ⲧa or ċa, when broad.

When the root ends in ḃ, ḃ, l, ll, n, nn, p, ċ, or ᵹ (except verbs in uiᵹ or iᵹ), the ⲧ of the participial termination retains its sound: after any other consonant, and also in verbs in uiᵹ or iᵹ, the ⲧ is aspirated. In the passive voice, the terminations ⲧap and ⲧí follow the same law.

VI. VERBS IN uıᵹ, &c.

1. Verbs of two or more syllables with the root ending in uıᵹ, or ıᵹ, and some other dissyllabic verbs ending in ıl, ın, ıp, and ıp, differ so decidedly from the model verb in the formation of some of their moods and tenses, that some writers,* not without reason, class them as a second conjugation.

2. The difference lies in the formation of the future and of the conditional in both voices; the other moods and tenses are formed like those of buaıl.

3. In buaıl, and all other verbs of its kind, the letter p is a characteristic mark of the future and of the conditional mood in both voices, as stated in Par. 3, p. 59.

4. The verbs now under consideration have no p in the future and conditional, but they take instead, eó, before the final consonant of the root.

5. In addition to this change, verbs in uıᵹ and ıᵹ change ᵹ into ċ; though in the spoken language of most parts of Ireland, the ᵹ retains its place.

6. There is no other inflectional difference between these verbs and buaıl, the personal terminations following the final consonant of the root being the same in all cases.

7. In the other tenses of the indicative, verbs in ıl, ın, ıp and ıp are almost always syncopated by the elision of the vowel or diphthong preceding the final root consonant, as coḋaıl, sleep, coḋlaım,

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* As for instance the Rev. Canon Bourke in his "College Irish Grammar."

I sleep, &c. (But this change is not regarded as
grammatical inflection.)

8. Verbs in uıჳ almost always form their in-
finitive by dropping the ı and adding the usual ter-
mination aꝺ; those in ıჳ alone (not preceded by **u**),
retain the ı and take **u** after it in the infinitive:
as comarċuıჳ, mark; infinitive, comarċuჳaꝺ;
comaırlıჳ, advise; infinitive, comaırluჳaꝺ.

9. Sometimes there are other slight changes,
caused chiefly by the rule coal le caol &c., which
will be obvious on inspection.

10. The following are a few examples of the
formation of the present and future indicative,
and of the conditional mood, in such verbs. The
first person singular only is given in each case, as
the other persons have the same terminations as
buaıl and meall.

Root or imper.	Pres. indic.	Future indic.	Conditional Mood.
Ꝺírıჳ, direct.	ꝺírıჳım.	ꝺírҽóҫaꝺ.	ꝺírҽóҫaınn.
Ꞡráꝺuıჳ, love.	ჳráꝺuıჳım.	ჳráıꝺҽóҫaꝺ.	ჳráıꝺҽóҫaınn.
Labaır, speak.	labraım.	laıbҽóraꝺ.	laıbҽóraınn.
Ҫarruıჳ, draw.	ҫarrჳım.	ҫarҽónჳaꝺ.	ҫarҽónჳaınn.
Forჷaıl, open.	forჳlaım.	forჳҽólaꝺ.	forჳҽólaınn.
Coraın, defend.	cornaım.	coırҽónaꝺ.	coırҽónaınn.
Innır, tell,	ınnırım.	ınnҽóraꝺ.	ınnҽóraınn.
Ꝺíbır, banish.	ꝺíbrım.	ꝺíbҽóraꝺ.	ꝺíbҽóraınn.

11. In Munster, verbs in ıl, ın, ır, and ır, are
conjugated like those in uıჳ or ıჳ; and the eó
comes *after* the final consonant: thus ꝺíbır,
banish, is made in the future and conditional,
ꝺíbrҽóჳaꝺ and ꝺíbrҽóჳaınn, as if the verb were
ꝺíbrıჳ.

12. A table of the full conjugation of a verb in
uıჳ (áꝺbuıჳ) is given at page 65.

Synthetic Conjugation of meall, deceive.

		ACTIVE VOICE.		PASSIVE VOICE.	
		SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Imperative Mood.	1. 2. 3.	meaLL meaLL-aö pé	meaLL-amaoip meaLL-aiö meaLL-aiöp		
Indicative Mood. Pres. Tense.	1. 2. 3.	meaLL-aim meaLL-aip meaLL-aiö pé	meaLL-amaoiö meaLL-taoi meaLL-aiö	Same form as the Present Indicative. meaLL-tap { mé / tú / é }	meaLL-tap { pinn, inn / riö, iö / iaö }
Consuet. Present.	1. 2. 3.	meaLL- { mé / tú / pé } ann	meaLL-am { pim / riö / riaö }	Same form as the Present.	
Simple Past.	1. 2. 3.	ṁeaLL-ap ṁeaLL-aip ṁeaLL pé	ṁeaLL-aman ṁeaLL-aöan ṁeaLL-aöap	meaLL-aö { mé / tú / é }	meaLL-aö { pinn, inn / riö, iö / iaö }
Consuet. Past.	1. 2. 3.	ṁeaLL-ainn ṁeaLL-ṫá ṁeaLL-aö pé	ṁeaLL-amaoip ṁeaLL-taoi ṁeaLL-aöip	meaLL-taoi { mé / tú / é }	meaLL-taoi { pinn / riö / iaö }
Future.	1. 2. 3.	meaLL-paö meaLL-paip meaLL-paiö pé	meaLL-pamaoiö meaLL-paiö meaLL-paiö	meaLL-pap { mé / tú / é }	meaLL-pap { pinn, inn / riö, iö / iaö }
Conditional Mood.	1. 2. 3.	ṁeaLL-painn ṁeaLL-pá ṁeaLL-paö pé	ṁeaLL-pamaoip ṁeaLL-paö ṁeaLL-paöaoip	ṁeaLL-paiöe { mé / tú / é }	ṁeaLL-paiöe { pinn, inn / riö, iö / iaö }

Infinitive Mood, do ṁeaLL-aö.

Passive Voice — Infinitive Mood, to beiṫ meaLL-ta.

Participle, aᵭ meaLL-aö.

Participle, meaLL-ta.

SYNTHETIC CONJUGATION OF áⱃoᵹ, raise.

		ACTIVE VOICE.		PASSIVE VOICE.	
		SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Imperative Mood.		1. — 2. áⱃouiᵹ 3. áⱃouiᵹeaḋ ⱃé	áⱃouiᵹmíⱃ áⱃouiᵹ-ᵹí áⱃouiᵹ-oíⱃ	Same form as the Present Indicative.	
Indicative Mood.	Pres. Tense.	1. áⱃouiᵹim 2. áⱃouiᵹiⱃ 3. áⱃouiᵹ-iᵹ ⱃé	áⱃouiᵹ-mío áⱃouiᵹ-ᵹí áⱃouiᵹ-io	áⱃouiᵹ-teaⱃ { mé, tú, é }	áⱃouiᵹ teaⱃ { ſinn, ⱃíb, iao }
	Consuet. Present.	1. 2. 3. áⱃouiᵹ-eann { mé, tú, é }	áⱃouiᵹ-eamaⱃ áⱃouiᵹ-eaoaⱃ áⱃouiᵹ-eaoaⱃ { ſinn, ⱃíb, iao }	Same form as the Present.	
	Simple Past.	1. áⱃouiᵹ-eaⱃ 2. áⱃouiᵹ-iⱃ 3. áⱃouiᵹ ⱃé	áⱃouiᵹ-eamaⱃ áⱃouiᵹ-eaoaⱃ áⱃouiᵹ-eaoaⱃ	áⱃouiᵹ-eaᵹ { mé, tú, é }	áⱃouiᵹ-eaᵹ { ſinn, ⱃíb, iao }
	Consuet. Past.	1. áⱃouiᵹ-inn 2. áⱃouiᵹ-teáo 3. áⱃouiᵹ-eaᵹ ⱃé	áⱃouiᵹ-míⱃ áⱃouiᵹ tí áⱃouiᵹ-oíⱃ	áⱃouiᵹ-tí { mé, tú, é }	áⱃouiᵹ-tí { ſinn, ⱃíb, iao }
	Future	1. áⱃoeóó-ao 2. áⱃoeóó-aiⱃ 3. áⱃoeóó-aiᵹ ⱃé	áⱃoeóó-amaoio áⱃoeóó-taoio áⱃoeóó-aio	áⱃoeóó-aⱃ { mé, tú, é }	áⱃoeóó-aⱃ { ſinn, ⱃíb, iao }
Conditional Mood.		1. áⱃoeóó-ainn 2. áⱃoeóó-tá 3. áⱃoeóó-aᵹ ⱃé	áⱃoeóó-amaoⱃ áⱃoeóó-taoiᵹ áⱃoeóó-aoiⱃ	áⱃoeóó-aioe { mé, tú, é }	áⱃoeóó-aioe { ſinn, ⱃíb, iao }

Infinitive Mood, o'áⱃouᵹaó.　　　Infinitive Mood, oo beiⱃ áⱃouiᵹte.

Participle, aᵹ áⱃouᵹaó.　　　Participle, áⱃouiᵹte.

VII. IRREGULAR VERBS.

1. There are fourteen irregular verbs, several of which are defective, i.e., want one or more of the moods and tenses. The conjugation of some of them, it will be observed, is made up of that of two or more different verbs.

2. It will also be observed that through all their irregularities, the five synthetic personal terminations remain unchanged; for which reason it is scarcely correct to call these verbs irregular at all.

3. The irregular verbs are as follows:—(1), ⅽáιm, I am; (2), the assertive verb ιⱀ; (3), ⴱeιⱀιm, I give; (4), ⴱeιⱀιm, I bear; (5), ⳡⅿ, I see (including ⱀeιⱀⅿ); (6), ⱅ�␣ⅿ, I hear; (7), ⱅéⰀⰀⰀⰀⰀⰀ, I do; (8), ⰳⱀⅿ or ⱀⅿ, I do; (9), ⴱeιⱀⅿ, I say; (10), ⱀaⰳⰀⅿ or ⰳeⰀⰀⰀⅿ, I find; (11), Ⰰⱅⅿ, I eat; (12), ⱀⰀⰳⅿ, I reach; (13), ⱅéⰀⰀⰀ, I go; (14), ⱅⰀⰳⅿ, I come.

4. The following is the synthetic conjugation of the irregular verbs (except in the case of the second verb Ⰰⱀ, which has no synthetic conjugation). They may be all conjugated analytically, by using the third person singular of each tense with the three personal pronouns singular and plural, as shown in case of the regular verb at page 49. As an example, the analytic conjugation of the present tense of the first verb, ⅽáιm, is given.

(**1**.) ⅽáιm, *I am*.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
1.	1. ⴱⅿⰀⰀⱀ, let us be.
2. ⴱⅠ, be thou.	2. ⴱⅠⱅⰀ, be ye.
3. ⴱⅠⰀⰀⱅ ⱀé, or ⴱⅠⰀⰀ ⱀé, let him be.	3. ⴱⅠⰀⰀⱀ, let them be.

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. ᴄáim, aᴄáim, I am.	1. ᴄámaoiᴅ, aᴄámaoiᴅ, we are.
2. ᴄáip, aᴄáip, thou art.	2. ᴄáᴄaoi, aᴄáᴄaoi, ye are.
3. ᴄá pé, aᴄá pé, he is.	3. ᴄáiᴅ, aᴄáiᴅ, they are.

Present Tense : analytic conjugation.

1. ᴄá mé, aᴄá mé, I am.	1. ᴄá pinn, aᴄá pinn, we are.
2. ᴄá ᴄú, aᴄá ᴄú, thou art.	2. ᴄá piᴅ, aᴄá piᴅ, ye are.
3. ᴄá pé, aᴄá pé, he is.	3. ᴄá piaᴅ, aᴄá piaᴅ, they are.

Consuetudinal Present.

1. bíᴅim, I am usually.	1. bímfiᴅ, bíᴅmfiᴅ, bío-maoiᴅ, we are usually.
2. bíᴅip, thou art usually.	2. bíᴄí, bíᴅᴄí, ye are usually.
3. bíᴅeann pé, or bíonn pé, he is usually.	3. bíᴅ, bíᴅiᴅ, they are usually.

Interrogative and Negative Present.

(The negative particle is here used : see Par. 3, p. 69.)

1. ní b-puilim, I am not.*	1. ní b-puilmíᴅ, we are not.
2. ní b-puilip, thou art not.	2. ní b-puilᴄí, ye are not.
3. ní b-puil pé, he is not.	3. ní b-puiliᴅ, they are not.

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* These are commonly pronounced in conversation as if the ᴅ-pui were omitted in each case ; and accordingly they are often contracted in books to ní'lim, ní'lip, ní'l pé, &c.

Past Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. biðeaṙ, bíoṙ, I was.	1. biðeamaṙ, bíomaṙ, we were.
2. biðiṙ, bíṙ, thou wert.	2. biðeaḃaṙ, bíoḃaṙ, ye were.
3. bi̇ð ṙé, bí ṙé, he was.	3. biðeaḃaṅ, bíoḃaṅ, they were.

Consuetudinal Past.

1. biðinn, bínn, I used to be.	1. biðmíṙ, bímíṙ, we used to be.
2. biðċeá, bíċeá, thou usedst to be.	2. biðċí, bíċí, ye used to be.
3. biðeȧð ṙé, bíȯð ṙé, he used to be.	3. biðṫíṙ, bíṫíṙ, they used to be.

Interrogative and Negative Past.

(The negative particle is here used: see Par. 3, p. 69).

1. ní ṙaḃaṙ, I was not.	1. ní ṙaḃamaṅ, we were not.
2. ní ṙaḃaiṙ, thou wert not.	2. ní ṙaḃaḃaṅ, ye were not.
3. ní ṙaiḃ ṙé, he was not.	3. ní ṙaḃaḃaṅ, they were not.

Future.

1. beiðeað, I shall be.	1. beiðmíð, we shall be.
2. beiðiṙ, thou shalt be.	2. beiðið, ye shall be.
3. beið ṙé, he shall be.	3. beiðið, they shall be.

Conditional Mood.

1. ƀeiƀinn, I would be.
2. ƀeiƀceá, thou wouldst be.
3. ƀeiƀeaƀ ré, or ƀeiċ ré, he would be.

1. ƀeiƀmír, we would be.
2. ƀeiƀcí, ye would be.
3. ƀeiƀír, they would be.

Infinitive Mood.

Do ƀeiċ, *to be.*

Participle.

Aᵹ beiċ, *being.*

1. Cá is commonly called the substantive verb, and answers to the verb "to be" in English.

2. It has two forms, which the regular verb has not, namely, a form in the present tense for interrogation and negation (ƀ-ꝑuilim), and a form in the past tense for the same (raƀar). These two are classed by O'Donovan as a subjunctive mood, present and past tense.

3. The forms ƀ-ꝑuilim and raƀar are used only:—

(*a.*) After negative and interrogative particles; as ní ƀ-ꝑuil ré cinn, he is not sick; ní raiƀ mé ann rin, I was not there: an ƀ-ꝑuil ꝑíon in ƀar lonᵹaiƀ? "Is there wine in your ships?" An raƀair aᵹ an ᵹ-cappaiᵹ? "Wert thou at the rock" (or at Carrick)? O naċ ƀ-ꝑuil ꝑuil uaiƀ aᵹam, "since I cannot escape from him" (lit. "since it is not with me to go from him"); an ƀ-ꝑuil a ꝑior aᵹac péin, a Ꝑhinn? ní ꝑuil, ar Ꝑionn, "Is the knowledge of it with thyself, O Finn?' 'It is not,' says Finn."

(But these forms are not used after the interrogative cionnar, how?)

(*b.*) After ʒο, that; as ϥeιριm ʒο ϧ-ϥuιl ρé ρlάn, I say that he is well.

(*c.*) After the relative α when it follows a preposition, or when it signifies " all that " (Par. 3, page 47); as cρeuϧ é αn ϥρeαʒρα ϲαϧαρραιρ αρ Ohια, αʒ α ϧ-ϥuιl ριορ ϧο loϲϲ? " What answer wilt thou give to God, who has a knowledge of thy sins?" (lit. "*with whom* is a knowledge"); α ϧ-ϥuιl ό Άϲ-clιαϲ ʒο h-Oιleάn mόρ αn ϧhαρραιʒ, " *all that* is from Ath-cliath (Dublin) to Oιleάn mόρ αn Bharraigh;" ϧο ϧeιρmíο αρ m-bριαϲαρ nαϲ beαʒ lιnn α m-beuραm ʒο Fιοnn ϧιοϧ, " we pledge our word, that we do not think it little, *all that* we shall bring of them to Finn."

4. This verb, like verbs in general, has a relative form for the present and future; but the relative form of the present is always a consuetudinal tense (whereas in regular verbs it is generally not consuetudinal); as mαρ αn ʒ-céαϧnα ϧíορ (or ϧíϧeαρ) αn bάρ αn οιρϲιll ϧο ρíορ αρ αn ϧuιne; "in like manner death is (in the habit of) lying in wait always for man."

5. The analytic form of this verb is now far more common in the spoken language than the synthetic. In asking a question the analytic form is often preferred: but in answering, the synthetic; as αn ραιϧ ϲú αʒ αn ʒ-Cαρραιʒ ? Ϧο ϧíορ αʒ αn ʒ-Cαρραιʒ, "Were you at Carrick? I was at Carrick."

6. The letter α is often prefixed to the present tense both in speaking and writing: αϲά instead of ϲά, &c.; it is sometimes slightly emphatic, but oftener merely euphonic, and does not otherwise affect the meaning.

7. This verb is often used as an auxiliary, like the verb " to be " in English; and it is the only verb in the Irish language that can be regarded

as an auxiliary. Thus, instead of buaılceaɲ mé,
I am struck, we can say ᴄá mé buaılce : for bo
buaıleaȯ mé, I was struck, bo bí mé buaılce, &c.

(2.) Iɲ, *it is.*

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Iɲ, it is : as ıɲ mé, it is I ; ıɲ ᴄú, it is thou.

Past Tense.

ba or buȯ, it was ; as ba mé, it was I.

Future Tense.

buȯ or buɲ, it will be.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

baȯ, it would be.

1. This is commonly called the assertive verb.

2. It has no inflection for person, being always
used in the third person singular : hence it is
often called the impersonal verb.

3. It has no other moods and tenses besides
those given above.

4. It takes other forms in the modern language,
some of them contracted, which are often puzzling
to learners.

5. After ᵹuɲ, that, it is often made ab, which
is given by O'Donovan as a subjunctive mood ; as
cɲeıbım ᵹuɲ ab é aᴄá ᴄınn, I believe that it is he
(who) is sick : meaɲuım bá ɲéıɲ ɲın, ᵹuɲ ab bá
blıaᵹaın aᵹuɲ ɲıce ɲul ɲuᵹaȯ Abɲaham ᴄánıc
Paɲᴄolón ı n-Eıɲınn, "I think, according to that

that it is two years and twenty before Abraham was born, that Partholon came to Erin."

6. Very often ʒᴜᴘ aʙ is shortened by omitting the a; as ᴄᴘeɪᴏɪʍ ʒᴜᴘ 'ʙé, &c.; and sometimes the ʙ is joined to ʒᴜᴘ, as ᴄᴘeɪᴏɪʍ ʒᴜᴘʙ é, &c.

7. After ʍá, if, the ɪ is omitted, as ʍá'ᴘ ꜰɪoᴘ é, if it be true; and in this case the ᴘ is often joined to the ʍá; as ʍáᴘ ꜰɪoᴘ é: ʍáᴘ ʍaɪᴄ ʟeaᴄ a ʙeɪᴄ buaɴ, ᴄaɪᴄ ꜰuaᴘ aʒuᴘ ᴄeɪᴄ, "if you wish to be long-lived, drink cold and hot" (or "drink cold and flee"—a celebrated Irish saying of double meaning).

8. Sometimes ʙa or ʙa is shortened to ʙ or ʙ alone, which again is often joined to the preceding word; as ʟaoᴄ ʙ'áᴘ ʙ'aɪɴʍ ʟɪᴘ, or ʟaoᴄ ʙaᴘʙ aɪɴʍ ʟɪᴘ, "a hero whose name was Lir;" of which the full construction is, ʟaoᴄ ʙo a ᴘo ʙa aɪɴʍ ʟɪᴘ, "a hero to whom was name Lir."

9. There is another form, ꜰá, for the past tense, which is now disused, but which is constantly used by Keating, and by other writers of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries: ꜰá ᴄᴘéaɴꜰeaᴘ aɴ ᴄeaᴄ ᴘo, "this Ceat was a mighty man;" ɪᴘ í (baɴba) ꜰa beaɴ ʙo ʍʜaᴄ ᴄoɪʟʟ, ʙ'áᴘ ʙ'aɪɴʍ ʙíʟɪoᴘ ᴇaᴄúᴘ, "it is she (Banba) who was wife to Mac Coll, whose proper name was Eathur;" óᴘ é aɴ ᴘᴄoɪᴄʙéaᴘʟa ꜰá ᴄeaɴʒa ᴄoɪᴄᴄeaɴɴ ᴘaɴ Sᴄɪᴄɪa aɴ ᴄᴘáᴄ ʙo éᴘɪaʟʟ Neɪʍeaʙ aɪᴘʙe, "since it is the Scotic language which was the common tongue in Scythia in the time that Neimheadh emigrated from it."*

10. For the distinction between ᴄá and ɪᴘ, see Idioms.

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* For the various forms assumed by this verb in the ancient language, see O'Donovan's most instructive article in his "Irish Grammar," p. 161.

(3.) bheıpım, *I give.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
1. . . .	1. ταϑπαmαοιp.
2. ταϑαιp.	2. ταϑπαϑ.
3. ταϑπαϑ pé.	3. ταϑπαϑαοιp.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

First Person Singular.

Present :	beıpım, ταϑπαιm, or τυϑαιm.
Consuet. Pres. :	beıpeαnn.
Past :	τυϑαp.
Consuet. Past :	beıpınn, τυϑαιnn.
Future :	béαppαϑ, ταϑαppαϑ.
CONDITIONAL MOOD :	béαppαιnn, τάϑαppαιnn.

With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers

INFINITIVE; ϑο τάϑαιpτ. PARTICIPLE; αϑ τάϑαιpτ.

PASSIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE; beıpτεαp, τάϑαpταp, τυϑταp, mé, τú, é, &c.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present :	beıpτεαp, τυϑταp.
Past :	τυϑαϑ.
Consuet. Past :	beıpτιϑε, τυϑταιϑε.
Future :	béαppαp, τάϑαppαp.
CONDITIONAL MOOD :	béαppαιϑε, τάϑαppαιϑε.

mé, τú, 6, &c.

INFINITIVE; ϑο beıτ τάϑαpτα, ϑο beıτ τυϑτα.

PARTICIPLE; τάϑαpτα, τυϑτα.

6

1. This verb is made up of three different verbs: in some of the tenses any one of the three may be employed; in some, either of two; and in some only one; as shown in the paradigm.

2. In the present tense, beɩꞃɩm (but not the other two verbs) takes the particle ꝺo (which is a mark of the past in regular verbs), and commonly has its initial aspirated.

(**4**.) beɩꞃɩm, *I bear.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

Imperative Mood.

Singular.	Plural.
1. . . .	1. beɩꞃɩmɪꞃ.
2. beɩꞃ.	2. beɩꞃɪꝺ.
3. beɩꞃeaꝺ ꞃé.	3. beɩꞃɩꝺɪꞃ.

Indicative Mood.

First Person Singular.

Present :	beɩꞃɩm.	
Consuet. Present :	beɩꞃeann.	
Past :	ꞃuꞁaꞃ.	With the usual
Consuet. Past :	beɩꞃɩnn.	terminations for
Future :	béaꞃꞃaꝺ.	the other persons
		and numbers.
Conditional Mood :	béaꞃꞃaɩnn.	

Infinitive ; ꝺo bꞃeɩt.   Participle ; aꟷ bꞃeɩt.

PASSIVE VOICE.

Imperative Mood ; beɩꞃteaꞃ mé, tú, é, &c.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present :	beinċeaр.
Past :	риȝаḃ.
Consuet. Past :	beinċí.
Future :	béaррam.
CONDITIONAL MOOD:	béaррaiḃe.

} mé, ṫú, ó, &c.

INFINITIVE; ꝺo beiṫ beinṫe.   PARTICIPLE; beinċe.

(5.) Ċím, *I see.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
1. . . .	1. рeicimír, рeicimíꝺ.
2. рeic.	2. рeiciꝺ.
3. рeiceaꝺ ré.	3. рeiciꝺír.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

1. óíꝺim, óím, рeicim.	1. óíꝺmíꝺ, óímíꝺ, рeicimíꝺ
2. óíꝺiр, óír, рeiciр.	2. óíꝺí, óíċí, рeiciċí.
3. óíꝺiꝺ ré, ċiꝺ ré, рeiciꝺ ré.	3. óíꝺiꝺ, óꝺo, рeiciꝺ.

Consuet. Pres.; óíꝺeann, рeiceann, mé, ṫú, ré, &c.

Past.

1. ꝺonnaрcaр.	1. ꝺoncamaр.
2. ꝺonnaрcaiр.	2. ꝺoncaḃaр.
3. ꝺonnaiрc ré.	3. ꝺoncaꝺaр.

First Person Singular.

Consuet. Past : óíꝺinn or óínn.	} With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
Future : óíꝺeaꝺ or óíрeaꝺ.	
CONDITIONAL MOOD : óíꝺinn, or óíрinn, or рeicрinn.	

INFINITIVE MOOD; ꝺ'рeicрin or ꝺ'рeicрinṫ.
PARTICIPLE; aȝ рeicрin or aȝ рeicрinṫ.

PASSIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD; peicceap, mé, cú, é, &c.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense: óíóceap or peicceap.
Past: connapcaó.
Past Consuet.: óíóċí or peicċí.
Future: óíópeap or peicpeap.

} mé, cú, é, &c.

CONDITIONAL óíópíóe or peicpíóe.
MOOD :

INFINITIVE MOOD; óo óeiċ peicce. PARTICIPLE; peicce.

1. Ċíóim is defective in some of its moods and tenses, which are supplied by other verbs—the imperative and infinitive by peicim or paicim, and the past indicative of both voices by an old verb—otherwise disused—connapcaim.

2. Peicim or paicim, although it is brought in among the irregular verbs to supply the defects of óíóim, is itself regular.

3. Observe that the initial of óíóim is *always* aspirated.

(6.) Cluinim. *I hear.*

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Past Tense.

1. óualap.	1. óualaman.
2. óualaip.	2. óualabap.
3. óualaíó pé.	3. óualabap.

INFINITIVE MOOD ACTIVE; óo ólop or óo óloipcin.

PARTICIPLE ACTIVE ; aʒ ólop or aʒ óloipcin.

1. In all the other moods and tenses, cluinim is regular, and is conjugated like buail.

(**7**.) ⲇéⲁⲛⲁⲓⲙ, *I do.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

1. . . .	1. ⲇéⲁⲛⲁⲙ, ⲇéⲁⲛⲁⲙⲁⲟⲓⲣ, ⲇéⲁⲛⲁⲙⲁⲟⲓⲃ.
2. ⲇéⲁⲛ.	2. ⲇéⲁⲛⲁⲓⲃ.
3. ⲇéⲁⲛⲁⲃ ⲣé.	3. ⲇéⲁⲛⲁⲓⲃⲓⲣ.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Past Tense.

1. ⲣⲓⲅⲛeⲁⲣ, ⲇeáⲣⲛⲁⲣ, ⲇéⲁⲛⲁⲣ.	1. ⲣⲓⲅⲛeⲁⲙⲁⲣ, ⲇeáⲣⲛⲁⲙⲁⲣ, ⲇéⲁⲛⲁⲙⲁⲣ.
2. ⲣⲓⲅⲛⲓⲣ, ⲇeáⲣⲛⲁⲓⲣ, ⲇéⲁⲛⲁⲓⲣ.	2. ⲣⲓⲅⲛeⲁⲃⲁⲣ, ⲇeáⲣⲛⲁⲃⲁⲣ, ⲇéⲁⲛⲁⲃⲁⲣ.
3. ⲣⲓⲅⲛe ⲣé, ⲇeáⲣⲛⲁⲃ ⲣé, ⲇéⲁⲛ ⲣé.	3. ⲣⲓⲅⲛeⲁⲃⲁⲣ, ⲇeáⲣⲛⲁⲃⲁⲣ, ⲇéⲁⲛⲁⲃⲁⲣ.

First Person Singular.

Present :	ⲇéⲁⲛⲁⲓⲙ.	
Consuet. Pres. :	ⲇéⲁⲛⲁⲓⲙ.	With the
Consuet. Past :	ⳝⲛⳝⲓⲛⲛ, ⲇeⲁⲣⲛⲁⲓⲛⲛ, ⲇéⲁⲛⲁⲓⲛⲛ.	usual termina-
Future :	ⲇéⲁⲛⲫⲁⲃ.	tions for the other persons
CONDITIONAL *Mood :*	ⲇéⲁⲛⲫⲁⲓⲛⲛ.	and numbers.

INFINITIVE MOOD ; ⲇⲟ ⲇéⲁⲛⲁ́ⲙ or ⲇⲟ ⲇéⲁⲛⲁⲃ.

PARTICIPLE ; ⲁⳝ ⲇéⲁⲛⲁ́ⲙ or ⲁⳝ ⲇéⲁⲛⲁⲃ.

PASSIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD ; Ⲇéⲁⲛⲧⲁⲣ ⲙé, ⲧú, é, &c.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present :	ⲇéⲁⲛⲧⲁⲣ.	
Past :	ⲣⲓⲅⲛeⲁⲃ, ⲇeáⲣⲛⲁⲃ.	
Consuet. Past :	ⳝⲛⳝⲓⳓⲓ.	ⲙé, ⲧú, é, &c.
Future :	ⲇéⲁⲛⲫⲁⲣ.	
CONDITIONAL *Mood :*	ⲇéⲁⲛⲫⲁⲓⲃe.	

INFINITIVE MOOD ; ⲇⲟ ⲃeⲓ⳰ ⲇéⲁⲛⲧⲁ. PARTICIPLE ; ⲇéⲁⲛⲧⲁ.

1. This verb and the next borrow from each other to form some of the moods and tenses in which they are defective.

(8.) ᵹním or ním, *I do.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

Indicative Mood.

First Person Singular.

Present :	ᵹním or ním.	⎫ With the usual
Past :	ᵹníðeaṟ or níðeaṟ.	⎬ terminations for
Consuet. Past:	ᵹníðinn or níðinn.	⎭ the other persons
		and numbers.

PASSIVE VOICE.

Indicative Mood.

Present :	ᵹníṫeaṟ or níṫeaṟ.	⎱ mé, ṫú, é, &c.
Consuet. Past :	ᵹníṫí or níṫí.	⎰

1. This verb is used in no other moods or tenses ;
but so far as it goes it is very common in both
forms—with and without the ᵹ (ᵹním and ním).
The other moods and tenses are expressed by
means of ðéanaim.

(9.) ƀeiṟim, *I say.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

Imperative Mood.

Singular.	Plural.
1.	1. aƀṟam, aƀṟamaoiṟ, aƀṟamaoið.
2. aƀaiṟ.	2. aƀṟaið.
3. aƀṟað ṟé:	3. aƀṟaðaoiṟ.

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.

1. ƀeiṟim:	1. ƀeiṟimíð.
2. ƀeiṟiṟ.	2. ƀeiṟṫíð
3. ƀeiṟ ṟé.	3. ƀeiṟið.

Consuet. Pres. ƀeiṟeann me, ṫú, ṟé, &c.

Past.

1. buḃar.
2. buḃair.
3. buḃairt ṙé.

1. buḃamar.
2. buḃaḃar.
3. buḃaḃar.

First Person Singular.

Consuet. Past :	beirinn.	With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
Future :	béarṙaḋ.	
CONDITIONAL MOOD :	béarṙainn.	

INFINITIVE MOOD; do ráḋ.   PARTICIPLE; aṁ ráḋ.

PASSIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD; abarṫar mé, ṫú, é, &c.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present :	beirṫear.	mé, ṫú, é, &c.
Past :	buḃaḋ.	
Consuet Past :	beirṫí.	
Future :	béarṙar.	
CONDITIONAL MOOD :	béarṙaiḋe.	

INFINITIVE MOOD; do beiṫ ráiḋṫe, do beiṫ ráiṫe.

PARTICIPLE; ráiḋṫe, ráiṫe.

1. The verb abraim, I say, from which beirim borrows its imperative, is itself a regular verb.

2. Observe the characteristics of buḃar, the past indicative active :—(*a*) it does not take the participle do or ro; (*b*) the initial is not aspirated.

3. The letter a is often prefixed to this verb for the sake of emphasis; as a beirim for beirim, I say; a buḃairt ṙé for buḃairt ṙé, he said.

(10.) Faġaim or ġeibim, *I find.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.		Plural.
1.		1. faġmaoiþ, faġmaoiḃ.
2. faġ.		2. faġaiḃ.
3. faġaḋ, ré.		3. faġaiḋír.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

1. faġaim or ġeibim.	1. faġmaoiḃ or ġeibmíḃ.
2. faġaiþ or ġeibiþ.	2. faġtaíḃ or ġeibtíḃ.
3. faġaiḋ ré, or ġeiḃ ré.	3. faġaiḃ or ġeibiḃ.

Past.

1. fuaрár.	1. fuaрaman.
2. fuaрair.	2. fuaрaḃaþ.
3. fuaiþ ré.	3. fuaрaḃaþ.

First Person Singular.

Consuet. Past :	faġainn or ġeibinn.	With the
Future :	ġeaḃaḋ, ġeoḃaḋ.	usual termina-
Future neg. & interrog.	ġeaḃaḋ or ḃfuiġeaḃ.	tions for the
		other persons
CONDITIONAL	ġeaḃainn, ġeoḃainn.	and numbers.
MOOD :	or ḃ-faġainn, ḃ-fuiġinn.	

INFINITIVE ; ḋ'ḟáġail.   PARTICIPLE ; aġ fáġail.

PASSIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD ; faġtaр me, tú, é, &c.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present :	faġtaр.	
Past :	fuaрaḋ or fрit.	Mé, tu, é. &c.
Consuet. Past :	ġeibtí.	
CONDITIONAL	ġeaḃtaiḃe, ḃ-fuiġtíḃe.	
MOOD :		

(*Defective in Infinitive and Participle.*)

1. The second form of this verb (ꞃeibim) has its initial aspirated in the present and future active.

2. The past tense (ꞃuaꞃaꞃ, &c.) may or may not take the particle bo or ꞃo; but its initial consonant is not aspirated.

(11.) Iċim, *I eat.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

Future Indicative :   ioꞃꞃab. } With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.

CONDITIONAL MOOD :   ioꞃꞃainn.

1. The past indicative is either the regular form b'iċeaꞃ, &c., or the irregular buaꞃ (with the usual terminations :—buaiꞃ, buaib ꞃé, &c.)

2. The infinitive is b'iċe.

3. In other respects this verb is regular.

(12.) Riꞷim, *I reach.*

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
1.	1. riꞷmíꞃ.
2. riꞷ.	2. riꞷíb.
3. riꞷeab ꞃé.	3. riꞷibíꞃ.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. riꞷim	1. riꞷmíb.
2. riꞷiꞃ	2. riꞷċí.
3. riꞷ ꞃé.	3. riꞷíb.

Past.

1. ρánζαρ.	1. ρánζαmaρ.
2. ρánζαρ.	2. ρánζαϑαρ.
3. ρáιniζ ρé, ρánαιζ ρé.	3. ρánζαϑαρ.

First Person Singular.

Consuet Past :	ριζιnn.	⎫
Future :	ριζρεαϑ.	⎬ With the usual termi-nations for the other persons and numbers.
CONDITIONAL MOOD :	ριζρinn.	⎭

INFINITIVE ; ϑο ριαϭταιn or ϑο ροϭταιn.

1. The past, future, and conditional, are some-times expressed by a different verb, as follows :—but this form (which is the same form as the infinitive), is not often met with in the modern language.

First Person Singular.

Past :	ριαϭταρ.	⎫
Future :	ριαϭτραϑ.	⎬ With the usual termi-nations for the other persons and numbers.
CONDITIONAL MOOD :	ριαϭτραιnn.	⎭

(13.) Ϭéιϑιm, *I go.*

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
1.	1. Ϭéιϑmíρ.
2. Ϭéιϑ.	2. Ϭéιϑιϑ.
3. Ϭειϑεαϑ ρé.	3. Ϭéιϑϑíρ.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. Ϭéιϑιm.	1. Ϭéιϑmíϑ.
2. Ϭéιϑιρ.	2. Ϭéιϑϭιϑ or Ϭéιϭιϑ
3. Ϭéιϑ ρé.	3. Ϭéιϑιϑ.

Past Tense.

1. óuaóap.
2. óuaóaıp.
3. óuaıó pé.

1. óuaómap.
2. óuaóóap.
3. óuaóóap.

There is another form of the past tense of this verb used after the particles ʒo, ní, &c., which O'Donovan classes as a subjunctive mood. The negative ní, which aspirates, is here prefixed: after ʒo, the initial would be eclipsed.

1. ní óeaóap
2. ní óeaóaıp
3. ní óeaóaıó pé.

1. ní óeaóamap
2. ní óeaóaóap.
3. ní óeaóaóap.

First Person Singular.		
Consuet Past :	céıóınn.	⎫ With the
Future :	paópaó or paóaó.	⎬ usual termina-tions for the
Conditional Mood :	paópaınn or paóaınn.	⎭ other persons and numbers.

Infinitive ; óo óul.　　Participle ; aʒ óul.

(14.) ʒıʒım, *I come.*

Imperative Mood.

Singular.
1. . . . .
2. ċaп or ċıʒ.
3. ċıʒeaó pé.

Plural.
1. ċıʒımíp or ċıʒeam.
2. ċıʒıó.
3. ċıʒıóíp.

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.

1. ċıʒım.
2. ċıʒıp.
3. ċıʒ pé

1. ċıʒımíó.
2. ċıʒıó, ċıʒċíó
3. ċıʒıo.

Past Tense.

1. ċánȝap.	1. ċánȝaman.
2. ċánȝaip.	2. ċánȝaḃan.
3. ċáinic ṗé.	3. ċánȝaḃan.

First Person Singular

Consuet Past	ċiȝinn.	⎫
Future:	ciocpaḃ.	⎬ With the usual termi-nations for the other persons and numbers.
CONDITIONAL MOOD:	ciocpainn	⎭

INFINITIVE; ᴅo ċeaċc.   PARTICIPLE; aȝ ċeaċc.

OTHER DEFECTIVE VERBS.

1. The following defective verbs are often met with in the modern language.

Aip or ap, "says." It is used only in the third person, much like the English defective verb *quoth*; as, aip ṗé, says he : cpeuᴅ ᴅo ḃéunpaip ᴅam ? ap ᴅiapmaiᴅ : "' What wilt thou do for me?' says Diarmaid;" ḃéan eólup ᴅúinn map a ḃ-puil ṗé, ap piaᴅ, "' give knowledge to us where he is,' said they (or say they)." In the older writings this verb is often written oḃ.

Aᴅ ḃaċ, he (or she) died.

ᴅap, it seems, it seemed, or it might seem (according to the tense or mood of the verb with which it is connected). ᴅap liom, methinks or me-thought ; ᴅap leaᴅ it seems or seemed to thee ; and so on with the rest of these prepositional pro-nouns singular and plural : ᴅo piᴅ ṗé, ᴅap liom, map an ȝaoiċ, he ran, methought (or it seemed to me) like the wind.

Oliȝċeap, it is lawful, it is allowed.

Ⅾⅎⅆ, to know; ⅽⅆⅈⅽ rⅇ́ Ⅾⅎⅆ an paⅈⅆ rⅈⅆⅆann, he came (in order) to know whether they were there.

Ꝑeⅆⅆⅆ, I know; used only negatively and interrogatively, and in the present tense: ní ꝑeⅆⅆⅆ mé, I do not know; ní ꝑeⅆⅆⅆ rⅇ́, he does not know; an ⅆ-ꝑeⅆⅆⅆⅆ? do ye know?

Ní ꝑuⅼⅆⅈr, it is necessary (or "must," used impersonally); ní ꝑuⅼⅆⅈr ⅆam a ⅆeⅈⅆ aⅈr rⅈuⅆⅆⅼ, "it is necessary for me to be (or I must be) walking (away)."

CHAPTER VI.
ADVERBS, PREPOSITIONS, CONJUNCTIONS,
INTERJECTIONS.

I. ADVERBS.

1. There are not many simple adverbs in the Irish language. Far the greatest number of the Irish adverbs are compounds of two or more words.

2. An adverb may be formed from an adjective by prefixing the particle �ট, which in this application has the same effect as the English postfix *ly*; as ⅾopⅉ, fierce; �ট ⅾopⅉ, fiercely. Almost all Irish adjectives admit of being changed in this manner to adverbs.

3. Besides the adverbs formed in this way, there are many compound adverbs, which are generally made up of a noun and a preposition; the preposition often causing an eclipsis.

4. The following is an alphabetical list of the compound adverbs in most general use, with a few of the simple adverbs. Some of the compound adverbs become, in some situations, prepositions:—

Ⅾ ⅆ-ꝑaⅆ, far off, in space or time.

Ⅾⅆⅎr, on this side. (See ⅽaⅼⅼ.)

Ⅾ ⅆ-ⅽopaⅆ, at first, in the beginning.

Ⅾ ⅆ-ⅽuaⅈⅆ, northwards.

Ⅾ �ট-ⅽéaⅆóⅈr, immediately.

a ʒ-céin, far off.

a ʒ-coṁnuiḋe, always.

aʒ ṛin, there.

aʒ ro, here.

aʒ ráṁ, yonder.

aiṛ aiṛ, back, backward. —
(See aiṛ éiʒin.)

aiṛ ball, on the spot, instantly.

aiṛ biċ, at all.

aiṛ bun, on foundation: ċuṛ aiṛ bun, to found, to institute.

aiṛ ċeana, in like manner; in general.

aiṛ ċoiḋċe, for ever.

aiṛ éiʒin, with difficulty; perforce:—aiṛ aiṛ no aiṛ éiʒin, by consent or by force: *nolens volens; willy nilly.*

aiṛ ʒ-cúl, backwards, back: ċuṛ aiṛ ʒ-cúl—the opposite to ċuṛ aiṛ bun—to put back, to abolish.

aiṛ leiṫ, apart, separately.

aiṛ ṁoḋ, in a manner; so that:

aiṛ ron, for the sake of.

aiṛ uaiṛiḃ, at times; sometimes.

amaċ, out of, outside.

aṁáin, alone, only.

amáṛaċ, to-morrow.

amuiʒ, outside.

aṁuil, like, as.

an áiṛḋe, on high.

ané, yesterday.

aníor, from below, upwards.

ann éimṗeaċt, together.

ann ṛin, there.

ann ro, here:

a ráṁ, yonder.

a ndeaṛ, southward.

anaice, near.

anall, to this side; hither.

a nʒaṛ, near.

aniu, to-day.

anoiṛ, now.

anonn, to that side; thither.

an tan, when.

anuaṛ, from above, downwards.

aṛéiṛ, last night.

aṛiaṁ, ever.

aṛír, again.

aṛteaċ, in, into.

aṛtiʒ, inside.

beaʒ naċ, little but; almost.

cá h-aṛ, caḋ aṛ, canaṛ, from what? whence?

cá méiḋ, how many? how much?

cáit, cá h-áit, cia áit, what place?

ɒe bṛiʒ, because.

ɒo ṗíoṛ, always.

eaḋon, that is; *i.e.; id est.*

ꝼá, gives an adverbial meaning to some words.

ꝼá ċéaḋóiṛ, immediately.

ꝼá ḋeoiʒ, at last.

ꝼá ḋó, twice.

ꝼá ṛeaċ, by turns; respectively.

ꝼa tṛí, thrice.

ʒo bṛáċ, for ever (lit. to [the] judgment).

ʒo beiṁin, verily; truly; indeed.

ʒo ɒeoḋ, unto.

ʒo ꝼóill, yet; awhile.

ʒo h-iomlán, altogether.

ʒo léiṛ, entirely.

ʒo leóṛ, enough.

iomoṛṛo, however, moreover, indeed.

maille ṛe, together with.

maṛ an ʒ-céaḋna, likewise; in like manner.

Maṅ aon le, together with.

No ʒo, until.

O ṡoiṅ ale, from that time out.

Oṅ cionn, above.

Síoṡ, downwards.

Soiṅ, eastwards.

Suaṡ, upwards.

Ṫall, on the other side; beyond. (See Áḃuṡ.)

Tamall, awhile.

Tuille eile, besides; moreover.

II. PREPOSITIONS.

1. The following is a list of the simple prepositions :—

A or i, in ; as a mbaile, in the town.

A, out of, or from (unusual) ; as a Muṁain, out of Munster.

Aʒ or aiʒ, at, with.

Aiṅ, aṅ, upon.

Aṅṅ, in. This takes ṅ before the article. (See page 17.)

Aṅ, out of.

Chum, to or towards, for the purpose of.

Daṅ, used in swearing, equivalent to *by :* daṅ mo ḃṅiaṫaṅ, " by my word."

Do, to. De, from, off, of.

Eaḋaṅ, the same as ioiṅ.

Fá or ṡaoi, under.

Ʒan, without.

Ʒo, towards, along with. It takes ṅ before the article an ; as ʒuṅ an ḃ-tiʒ, to the house.

I, the same as a.

Iaṅ, after. It takes ṅ before the article (an), and becomes iaṅṅ.

Ioiṅ, between.

Im, the same as um.

Le or ṅe, with. It takes ṅ before the article (an), and then becomes leiṅ or ṅiṅ.

Maṅ, like, as.

O, from.

Oṅ, over, above.

Re, ṅia, before. It takes ṅ before the article (an).

Seaḋ, beyond, besides.

Taṅ, over, across. It takes ṅ before the article (an), and then becomes taṅṅ.

Tṅé, through. It takes ṅ before the article, and then becomes tṅéṅ.

Tṅíḋ, the same as tṅé.

Um or im, about.

2. Some of the simple prepositions are amalgamated with the personal and possessive pronouns, for which see pages 41, 45.

3. Besides the simple prepositions, there are in Irish a number of compound prepositions. Each of these consists of a simple preposition followed by a noun ; and in many of them the initial of the noun is eclipsed by the influence of the simple

preposition. In some cases the preposition has dropped out and only the noun remains.

4. The following is a list of the most usual compound prepositions, with their meanings:—

Ⰰ ḃ-ꝑiaḋnaiꝛe, in presence of.

Ⰰ ḃ-ꝑoċaiꝛ, along, along with.

Ⰰ ḃ-ꝓaoiḃ, in regard to, concerning.

Ⰰ ḃ-timċeall: see timċeall,

Ⰰ ʒ-ceann, at the head of, at the end of, with regard to.

Ⰰ ʒ-coinne, against, for (in the phrase to go *for*): ꝛiṫiꝺ a ʒ-coinne a ċéile, " they run against each other:" ꝺo ḋuaiḋ ꝛe a ʒ-coinne a aṫaꝛ, he went for his father.

Ⰰ ʒ-coiꝛ, by the side of, hard by, along. This is often contracted to coiꝛ: coiꝛ na ḃꝛiʒꝺe, " beside the (river) Bride."

Ⰰ h-aiṫle, after: a h-aiṫle na laoiḋe ꝛin, " after that lay."

Ⰰmeaꝛʒ, amongst: ꝛioꝛ ameaꝛʒ na ʒ-coillteaḋ, " down amongst the woods."

Ⰰ láṫaiꝛ, in presence of.

Ⰰiꝛ aʒaiḋ, forward, over against, opposite: ꝺul aiꝛ aʒaiḋ, to go forward, to progress: aiꝛ aʒaiḋ na ʒaoiṫe, opposite (exposed to) the wind.

Ⰰiꝛ ḃealaiḃ, in front of, opposite: ꝺo luiʒꝺiꝛ ꝺo ʒnáṫ a n-iomḃaiḋ aꝛ ḃealaiḃ a n-aṫaꝛ, " they used to lie. customarily, in beds opposite their father" (Children of Lir.)

Ⰰiꝛ bun, on foundation.

Ⰰiꝛ ceann, for (in the phrase to go for); as **a** ꝺuḃaiꝛt Naiꝛe le h-Ⰰꝛꝺán ꝺul aiꝛ ċenn Ƒeꝛʒuiꝛ, " Naisi said to Ardan to go for Fergus."

Ⰰiꝛ ꝑeaḋ, through, throughout, during: aiꝛ ꝑeaḋ bliaḋna, " during a year."

Ⰰiꝛ ꝑuꝺ, throughout, amongst aiꝛ ꝑuꝺ na ḃ-tonn, amongst the waves.

Ⰰiꝛ ʒ-cúl, behind.

Ⰰiꝛ ꝛon, for the sake of, although.

Ⰰ n-ꝺiaiḋ, after: a n-ꝺiaiḋ a ċéile, after one another, one after another.

Coiꝛ, contracted from a ʒ-coiꝛ.

Ⰰⰰla, as to: ꝺála ḃlánaiꝺe, " as to Blanaid."

Ⰰ'éiꝛ, after: ꝺ'éiꝛ na ꝺílinne, " after the deluge."

Ⰰ'ionnꝛaiʒiḋ or ꝺ'ionnꝛaiʒe, towards: ʒluaiꝛeaꝛ ꝛóiṁe ꝺ'ionnꝛaiʒe a luinʒe, " he goes forward towards his ship."

Ⅾoċum, towards.

Ⅾo ɼéiɼ, according to.

Ᵹo nuiᵹe, unto, until.

Ᵹo b-cí, to, unto, as far as: ɼiubail ᵹo b-cí an ⅾoɼuɼ, walk to the door.

Iomċúɼa, as to: iomċúɼa Ꝓhinn, "as to Finn."

Ꝓá ċuaiɼim, towards.

Láiṁ le or láiṁ ɼe, near, by, beside: ɼuiⅾ láiṁ liom, sit near me; láiṁ ɼe beannaiⅾ boiɼċe, "beside Beanna Boirche."

Oɼ cionn, over, above: Ᵹɲaⅾuiᵹ Ⅾia óɼ cionn ᵹaċ uile niⅾ, "love God above all things:" ɼo éiɼiᵹ oɼ cionn an ᵹaoi, "he rose over the spear."

I ᵹ-cionn, the same as a ᵹ-ceann: i ᵹ-cionn na bliaⅾna, "at the end of the year."

Caɼ ċeann, besides, for the sake of, beyond, in preference to.

Caɼ aiɼ, backwards; same as aiɼ aiɼ.

Caɼ éiɼ, after; the same as béiɼ: caɼ éiɼ na Saṁna, "after the Samhain (1st of November)."

Cimċeall, about, around: ceaċc cimċeall Ⅾhiaɼmaⅾa, "to go around Dermat."

Oɼ coṁaiɼ, in presence of, before the face of: óɼ coṁaiɼ Ꝓhinn, "in presence of Finn."

III. CONJUNCTIONS.

1. There are few simple conjunctions in the Irish language.

2. There are, however, many compound conjunctions, much like the English conjunctional phrases, "for the reason that," "to the end that," &c.

3. Generally speaking, the meanings of the compound conjunctions may be easily gathered from the signification of the words that compose them; but there are a few whose meanings are not so plain.

4. The following is a list of the simple conjunctions with their meanings, together with those of the compound conjunctions whose meanings are not quite obvious.

7

Αⅽⅽ, but, except.

Αⅽⅽ ⅽeana, but however.

Αᵹuⲣ, and ; often contracted to a'ⲣ, aⲣ, and 'ⲣ.

Αⲓⲣ an aóóaⲛ ⲣⲓⲛ, wherefore.

Αⲛ, an interrogative particle : an ⲃ-ⲫuⲓl ⲣí ⲣláⲛ? Is she well?

Αⲣ, the same as the last, only used with the past tense. See p. 58.

ⲃⲓóⲃ, although: it is really the third singular imperative of the verb ⲧáⲓm.

Cⲓⲟ́: see ᵹⲓⲟ́.

Cⲟ́ⲙ, as.

Ⲟá, if: sometimes written ⲃá mo.

Ⲟo ⲃⲣⲓᵹ, because.

Ⲟo ⲥuⲙ ᵹo, in order that.

Ⲫⲟ́ⲣ, yet, moreover.

ᵹⲓⲃ or ᵹⲓⲃeaⲃ, although.

ᵹo, that.

ᵹonaⲃ aⲓⲛe ⲣⲓⲛ, wherefore.

ᵹuⲛ, that: formed of the preceding and ⲛo: see p. 58.

loⲛⲁ́, ⲙⲁ́: see ⲛⲁ́.

loⲛⲛuⲣ ᵹo, in order that, so that.

Ⲙⲁ́, if.

Ⲙⲁ́ ⲧⲁ́ ᵹo, although that.

Ⲙⲁⲛ, as: see muna.

Ⲙuⲛa, if not, unless ; often written muⲛ, and even (corruptly) maⲛ.

Ⲙaⲓⲣeaⲃ, if so, well then.

Ⲙaⲛ ⲣⲓⲛ, maⲛ ⲣo, in that manner, in this manner: thus.

Ⲛⲁ́, than : see loⲛⲁ́.

Ⲛⲁ́, nor, not.

Ⲛⲟ́, or : often pronounced ⲛú in Munster.

O, since, seeing that, because.

O ⲧⲁ́ⲣla, since, whereas.

Oⲓⲛ, because.

Suⲗ, before.

Ⲩⲓⲙe ⲣⲓⲛ, therefore, wherefore.

IV. INTERJECTIONS.

1. The following is a list of the most common interjections. Besides these there are many interjectional expressions somewhat like the English, "O shame!" "Alack! and well-a-day!" but it is not necessary to enumerate them:—

Ⲁ, the sign of the vocative case, usually translated O.

Ⲁⲣ ⲧⲣuaᵹ, alas! what pity!

Eⲓⲣⲧ, hush! list!

Ⲫaⲛaoⲛ, ⲫaⲛaoⲓⲛ, alas!

Ⲫaⲛaoⲓⲛ ᵹeuⲛ, alas! O sharp sorrow!

Ⲫéaⲃ, see! behold!

Ⲙaⲓⲛᵹ, woe! O sad!

Ⲙoⲛⲁ́ⲓⲛe, O shame!

Ⲙoⲛuaⲛ, alas! woe is me!

Ⲙo ⲧⲣuaᵹ: see aⲣ ⲧⲣuaᵹ.

Oⲥ, uⲥ, alas!

Oⲥⲁ́ⲛ, or uⲥⲁ́ⲛ, alas! written oⲥⲁ́ⲛ or uⲥⲁ́ⲛ in old writings.

Olaᵹⲟ́ⲛ, alas!

CHAPTER VII.

PREFIXES AND AFFIXES.

1. There are in Irish, as in other languages, prefixes and affixes, which modify the meanings of words.

I. PREFIXES.

1. The following is a list of the principal prefixes with their meanings: it will be observed that many of them have a double form, which arises from conformity to the rule caol le caol &c.

2. Most of these are inseparable particles; but a few are also employed independently as separate words.

Aιρ or eιρ, back or again, like English *re:* as ιoc, payment; aιριoc, repayment, restitution: eιρξe, rising; eιρeιρξe resurrection.

Aṁ or aιṁ, a negative particle, like English *un:* as péιὸ, open, clear; aιṁpéιὸ, difficult, rough.

An, an intensive particle: as luacξáιρeaċ, joyful; as an-luacξáιρeaċ, overjoyed.

An or aιn, a negative particle, like English *un:* as τράτ time; anτρáτ, untimely: mían, desire; aιṁmían, evil desire.

Aτ, a reiterative, like English *re:* as ráὸ, a saying; aτρáὸ, a repetition.

Aτ has sometimes the meaning of English *dis* in *dismantle:* as cuma, a form; aτċumaὸ, to deform, to destroy; ριoξaὸ, to crown or elect a king; aιτριoξaὸ, to dethrone.

Ban, feminine (from bean, a woman); as eaċlaċ, a messenger; ban-eaċlaċ or baιn-eaċlaċ, a female messenger.

Bιτ or bιoτ, lasting, constant: as beó, living; bιτbeó, everlasting.

Cóṁ, equal : English *co* or *con :* as aimrear, time ; cóṁaimreaṅaċ, contemporary.

Ｄeaᵹ, ṫeiᵹ, good : as blar, taste ; ṫeaᵹḃlar, good or pleasant taste.

Ｄí, ṫío, a negative, like English *dis :* as céilliṫe, wise ; ṫíċéilliṫe, foolish : ceann, a head ; ṫíċeannaṫ, to behead.

Ｄroċ, ṫroiċ, bad or evil : as obair, a work ; ṫroċ-obair an evil work.

Ｄo and ro are opposites, as are also often the letters ṫ and r. Ｄo denotes difficulty, or ill, or the absence of some good or positive quality : as raicreanaṫ or roraicreanaṫ, visible : ṫoraicreanaṫ, invisible : ḃolár, tribulation ; rólár, comfort : ṫonar, ill luck ; ronar, good luck : ṫo-ḃéunta, hard to be done ; ro-ḃéunta, easy to be done : ṫuḃaċ. sad ; ruḃaċ, merry.

Ｅa, a negative, often causing eclipsis : as ṫaingean, strong ; éaṫaingean, weak ; cóir, just ; éaᵹcóir, injustice ; trom, heavy ; éaṫtrom, light.

Ｅar, a negative : as onóir, honour ; earonóir, dishonour : rlán, healthful ; earlán, sick : cairṫear, friendship ; earcairṫear, enmity.

Ｆo, under : as ṫuine, a man ; roṫuine, an *under-man*, a common man, a servant.

Ｆriċ, against, back, *contra :* as buille, a stroke ; rriċbuille, a back stroke : bac, a hook ; rrioċbac, a *back-hook*, a barb.

Il, iol, many : as iomaṫ, much ; iliomaṫ, sundry, various : ṫaċ, a colour ; iolṫaṫaċ, many coloured : raoḃar, an edge ; iolṙaoḃar, many-edged weapons.

In, ion, fit : as ṫéunta, done ; inḃéunta, fit to be done : raiṫte, said ; ionraiṫte, fit to be said.

Lán, full, used as an intensive : as aiṫḃéil, vast ; lánaiṫḃéil, awfully vast.

Leaṫ, half : as uair, an hour ; leaṫuair, half an hour. This word is also used to denote one of a pair : thus rúil, an eye ; leaṫ-rúil (literally *half an eye*), one of two eyes. See " Idiom, No. 13."

Mí, mío, a negative : as mear, respect ; míṁear, disrespect : cóṁairle, advice ; míoċóṁairle, evil advice.

Neaṁ, neiṁ, a negative : as coimrⁱᵹṫe, comprehensible ; neaṁċoimrⁱᵹṫe, incomprehensible : níṫ, a thing ; neiṁníṫ, nothing.

Reuṁ, before, like English *pre :* as raiṫte, said ; reuṁraiṫte, aforesaid.

Ro, an intensive particle : as mór, great ; ·ró-ṁór, very great.

Sáṁ, an intensitive particle: as maiṫ, good; ráṁ-ṁaiṫ, very good.

So, poi, the opposite to do, denotes apt, easy, good: as deapḃṫa, proved; poiḋeapḃṫa, easily proved.

Uṁ or úiṁ, an intensitive particle: as íreal, low; úiṁíreal, very low, humble, mean, vile.

II. AFFIXES OR TERMINATIONS.*

1. The following is a list of the principal affixes or terminations, with their meanings; but it does not include inflectional terminations, which are all given in connection with declensions and conjugations.

Aċ, when it is the termination of an adjective, means full of, abounding in, like the English y and ous, with the former of which it seems cognate; as ḋraiġean, the black-thorn; ḋraiġeanaċ, abounding in black-thorn; briaṫar, a word; briaṫraċ, wordy, talkative.

Aċ, as the termination of a noun, generally denotes a personal agent; as cúṁaċt, power: cúṁaċtaċ, a mighty person: Connaċtaċ, a native of Connaught.

Aċt, an abstract termination, like the English ness and ty (in probity): as carṫanaċ, charitable; carṫanaċt, charity: mór and mórḃa, great; morḃaċt, greatness.

Aiḋe, uiḋe, or íḋe, a personal termination, denoting a doer; as cor, a foot; coiriḋe, a walker; tiomáṅ, drive; tiomáṅaiḋe, a driver.

Aire or ire, a personal termination, denoting an agent or doer; as lonġ, a track; lonġaire, a tracker: cealġ, guile; cealġaire, a deceiver.

Aṁail has the same meaning as the English like and ly: as flaiṫ, a prince; flaiṫeaṁail, princely.

An, a diminutive termination, but it has now nearly lost its diminutive sense: as loċ a lake; loḋáṅ, a small lake.

Ar or ear, and sometimes the letter r alone, a termination denoting abstract quality, like aċt; as aoiḃinn, delightful;

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* For a full account of these terminations see the author's "Origin and History of Irish Names of Places." Second series, Chaps. I. and II.

aoıbneaɼ, delightfulness or delight: ceann, a head; ceann-aɼ, headship, authority.

bhaɼ and bɼe have a collective or cumulative sense; as buılle, a leaf; buılleabaɼ, foliage: baıɼ, an oak; baıɼbɼe, a place of oaks.

Chaɼ has a collective sense like the last; as beann, a peak or gable; beannċaɼ, abounding in peaks or gables.

Ưe, an ancient adjectival termination, has much the same meaning as the English *ful* and *ly* (in many). In the modern language it is varied to the forms ba, ba, and ca; as móɼ, great; mónba, majestic: ɼeaɼ, a man; ɼeaɼba, manly: míle, a champion; míleaḃca, champion-like, knightly.

É denotes abstract quality, like aċc; as ɼınn, fair or white; ɼınne, fairness: boᵹ, soft; buıᵹe, softness.

In, a diminutive termination. This may be said to be the only diminutive that still retains its full force in the living language; and it is much used in Ireland even where Irish is not spoken. bócaɼ, a road; bócaıɼín (*bohereen*), a little road: cɼusk, a pitcher; *cruiskeen*, a little pitcher.

Laċ, naċ, ɼaċ, caċ, cɼaċ, have all the same meaning as aċ, namely, full of, abounding in; as bɼıɼ, break; bɼıɼleaċ, a breach, a complete defeat: muc, a pig; muclaċ, a piggery: luaċaıɼ, rushes; luaċaɼnaċ, a rushy place: boᵹ, a bog or soft place; boᵹnaċ, a place full of bogs: coıll, a wood; coıllceaċ, a woody place. These seem to be cognate with the terminations in the English words *poult-ry, varie-ty*, &c.

Mhaɼ means abounding in, like the English *ful* and *ly;* as bɼıᵹ, power; bɼıoᵹmaɼ, powerful.

Oᵹ, a diminutive termination; as cıaɼ, black; cıaɼóᵹ, a black little animal (a clock): ᵹabal, a fork; ᵹabalóᵹ, a little fork.

Oıɼ, or bóıɼ, or cóıɼ, denotes an agent or doer, the same as the English *er* in *reaper;* as buaıl, strike; buaılceóıɼ, a thresher: coınneal, a candle; coınnleóıɼ, a candlestick: ɼɼeal, a scythe; ɼɼealaḃóıɼ, a mower.

Re has a collective signification, like baɼ; as beul, the mouth; bélɼe, language, speech.

Seaċ is used as a sort of feminine termination; as ᵹall, an Englishman; ᵹaıllɼeaċ, an Englishwoman: óıɼɼeaċ, a female fool (from an old root ón, whence the old word ónmıc, a fool, the equivalent of the modern amaban).

Caḃ and cɼaċ: see laċ.

PART III.

SYNTAX.*

CHAPTER I.

NOUNS.

1. When two nouns come together signifying different things, the second one is in the genitive case; as ᵹuᵹ ᵹaᵈaιᵽ, the voice of a hound; ι ᵬ-ᵽlaιᵼιoᵽ Eᵽeann, "in the sovereignty of Erin;" báᵽᵽ na h-ιnᵽe, the top of the island.

The noun in the genitive always follows the noun that governs it.

2. When the genitive noun is singular masculine, its initial is aspirated if the article is used; as mac an ᵽιᵽ, the son of the man. (See pages 17, 18, for this rule and its exceptions).

3. When the article is not used with the governed noun in the singular number, the initial of the latter is generally not aspirated (except in the case mentioned in next Rule); as Conall ι ᵹ-cᵽoᵼaιᵬ báιᵽ, "Conall in the forms *of death;*" a n-ᵬóláᵽ ᵬᵽóιᵈe a'ᵽ péιne, "in the sorrow *of bondage* and *of pain.*"

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* Several of the rules of Syntax have been unavoidably anticipated in Orthography and Etymology, as they are in every Irish Grammar. These rules will be referred to in their proper places in this Syntax, or repeated when thought necessary.

4. When the noun in the genitive is a proper name, its initial is generally aspirated, even though the article is not used; as ꞃlíoċꞇ Ṡhaoiḃil, "the race of Gaodhal;" cloiḋeaṁ Ṁhanannain, "the sword of Manannan."

Exception:—In this case, ḃ and ꞇ often resist aspiration (p. 34); as Éiꞃe inġean Ḋealḃaoiꞇ, "Éirè, the daughter of Dealbhaoth."

5. If the governed noun be in the genitive plural, its initial is eclipsed with the article, (for which see page 18); and the initial is generally aspirated, if the article is not used; as Ḋainġen ṁac n-Uiꞃneaċ, "the fortress of [the] sons of Usna;" buiḋean ċupaḋ, "a company of knights;" ḃiaꞃ ḃan, "two women" (or rather "a pair of women").

Even in the absence of the article however, an eclipsis sometimes occurs; as naoi naonḃaꞃ ḃo ḃí aġ ꞇeaċꞇ ḃ'iaꞃꞃaiḋ cíoꞃa aġuꞃ cána ḃ-ꞃeaꞃ n-Éiꞃionn, "nine times nine persons who were coming to demand the taxes and tributes *of the men* of Erin."

Sometimes also, in the absence of the article, the noun in the genitive plural is neither aspirated nor eclipsed.

6. When two nouns come together signifying the same thing (or in apposition), they generally agree in case; as Nuaḋa Áirġioḃláṁ mac Éaċꞇaiġ mic Éaḋaꞃláiṁ, "Nuadha Silver-hand, son of Eachtach, son of Eadarlamh;" na ḃ-ꞇꞃí ḃ-Ꝼinneaṁna, mac Éoċaiḋ, "of the three Fin-navnas, sons of Eochad."

Here, in the first example, Nuaḋa is nominative, and so is mac, which is in apposition to it; Éaċꞇaiġ is genitive, and so is the next word, mic, which is in apposition to it. In the second example, Ꝼinneaṁna is in the genitive (plural), and mac also, in opposition to it, is in the genitive (plural).

7. The last rule is not always observed: departures from it are sometimes found, even in good Irish writings; as, ꞃáinniḋe buiḋe óꞃḃa maꞃ

bróeaó aṗ Mháiṗe, bean Sheaġaiṁ an ḟíġeaóóṗa, "yellow gold rings as used-to-be on Mary, wife of John (the son of) the weaver;" táinic ṗíġ Chiaṗṗuióe luaċṗa ó'ḟíoṗ a ċoṁóalta, eaóon, Ciaṅ mac Oiliolla, "the King of Kerry-Luachra came to visit his foster-son, that is, Cian, the son of Oilioll: óo éṗiall (Oṗcaṗ) a ġ-coinne Mheaṗġaiġ ṁíṗe, an tṗéan leoṁan " Oscar went to meet the furious Meargach, *the strong lion*."

The first example exhibits a disagreement in case between Mháiṗe and bean, which are in apposition, the former being dative (after aṗ), the latter nominative (its dative would be mnaoi, p. 29). In the second example ċoṁóalta is genitive (after the infinitive, Rule 15, p. 112), and Ciaṅ, in apposition to it, is nominative (its genitive would be Céiṁ). In the last example Mheaṗġaiġ is genitive, and leoṁan, in apposition to it, is nominative. This last example however, seems properly to belong to a class of exceptions to Rule 7 which are explained further on ("Idioms:" No. 33, page 129).

8. A noun used adjectively in English is commonly expressed in Irish by a genitive case; as English, "a gold ring," Irish, ṗáinne óiṗ, a ring of gold. This form of expression is very common in Irish; as ṗeaṗ óliġe, a lawyer; literally " a man of law."

9. Collective nouns are singular in form, and as such they take the singular form of the article (when the article is used); but they are plural in signification, and as such they generally take adjectives and pronouns in the plural number, and also verbs in the plural, when, in accordance with Par. 9, p. 50, the plural form of the verb is used; as, noċtuió an ḟuiṗeann ṗin, " that company disclose;" tanġaóaṗ an buióean ċuṗaó ṗin óo látaiṗ Ṗhinn, aġuṗ óo beannuiġ ṗiaó óo, "that *company* of knights *came* to the presence of Finn, and *they* saluted him."

The personal nouns from biaṗ to beiċneaóaṗ, mentioned at page 39, follow this rule: as óo baóaṗ an biaṗ ṗin ġo h-imṗeaṗnaċ, "that pair were at strife."

10. Nouns denoting a part commonly take ⱱe with the dative of the nouns (or pronouns) of which they form a part; as ʒaⱱaʀ ⱱ'áʀ nʒaⱱaʀaiⱱ, "a hound of our hounds;" aon ċaoʀ ⱱioⱱ, "one berry of them;" ʒaċ ⱱuine ⱱe'n ⱱobul, "each person of the people."

11. The personal nouns from ⱱiaʀ to ⱱeiċneaⱱaʀ inclusive (p. 39,) and also ceóʀa, three, generally govern nouns in the genitive plural; as ⱱiaʀ ⱱan, "two (of) women;" a cʀiúʀ mac aʒuʀ a ⱱ-cʀiuʀ ⱱan, "his three sons and their three wives;" ceóʀa ⱱan, "three women;" naonⱱaʀ caoiʀeaċ, "nine chieftains."

But they sometimes take ⱱe with the dative as in last rule; as naoi naonⱱaʀ ⱱo ṁaoʀaiⱱ na ⱱ-Fóṁoʀaċ, "nine times nine *of the stewards* of the Fomorians:" mo ⱱíʀ mac, mo ⱱíʀ ⱱ'ʀeaʀaiⱱ, "my two sons, my two men."

CHAPTER II.

THE ARTICLE AND NOUN.

1. The article agrees with its noun in number, gender, and case; as an ʀeaʀ, the man; na ciʀce, of the hen; na ⱱa, the cows.

2. For the influence of the article on the noun, see p. 17.

3. When one noun governs another in the genitive, the article can be used only with the latter. Thus, in English we can say "the age of the world" (using the definite article with each noun); but in Irish, the corresponding expression is, aoiʀ an ⱱoṁain, not, an aoiʀ an ⱱoṁain.

Exception :—When a demonstrative pronoun follows the governing noun, or when the two nouns come together as a compound word, the governing noun may take the article; as an c-oiⱱe múince, the teacher; má ⱱo ⱱeiʀ cú an oiʀeaⱱ ʀin ⱱúinn 'ʀan ló ʀo na n-ⱱeóʀ, "if thou givest

so much to us in this day of tears." Here the article is used
before both ló and beón. Tanᵹabaɲ aɲíɲ ɩ n-Eɩɲɩnn an
ɼlɩoċc ɼo Shɩmeon Ⴆhɲɩc, "these descendants of Simon
Brec came again into Erin:" here the article is used before
ɼlɩoċc, the governing noun.

4. When a possessive pronoun is used with the
genitive noun, the article cannot be used with
either; thus, "the house of my father" is ceaċ
m'aċaɲ, not an ceaċ m'aċaɲ.

The peculiarity noticed in the last two rules exists also in
English when the possessive case is used, i.e., the article can
be used only with the possessive noun; as the world's age;
my father's house.

5. When a demonstrative pronoun is used with
a noun, the article is also used; as an ɼeaɲ ɼɩn,
that man, literally "the man that;" na mná úꝺ,
yonder women : literally "the women yonder."

6. The article is used before the names of some
countries and cities, where the definite article
would not be used in English; as Moenan, abb
Caċɲaċ Ⴔuɲɼa ɩɲɩn Ⴔɲaɩnc, béuᵹ, "Moenan,
abbot of Caher Fursa, in (the) France, died;"
Cɲuaċa na h-Eɩɲeann, "the stacks of (the)
Erin;" cuaɩɼceaɲc na h-Aɲɩa, "the north of (the)
Asia." There is in Irish also a form of phrase
corresponding to the English "the mighty
Hector;" as an c-Oɲcaɲ áᵹ, "the noble Oscar."

7. When an adjective is predicated of a noun by
the verb ɩɼ (in any of its forms), the article is
used with the noun (but in the corresponding ex-
pression in English the definite article would not
be used); as ɩɼ maɩċ an ɼeaɲ é, he is a good man :
literally "he is the good man."

9. The Irish article is used before abstract
nouns much more commonly than the English
definite article; as an c-ocɼuɼ, the hunger;
cɲí nɩꝺ bo ċím :—an peacaꝺ, an báɼ, a'ɼ an
ɲían, "three things I see, *the* sin, *the* death, and
the pain."

CHAPTER III.

THE ADJECTIVE AND NOUN.

1. Adjectives denoting fulness or a part of anything may take either the dative after ꝺe or the genitive; as (dative after ꝺe):—ꞇoꞇ bꝺ bapaile lán ꝺe leann, "between two barrels full of ale;" ꞇá mé lán ꝺo náꞃe, "I am full of shame;" mópán ꝺ'uaꞃliꝺ, "many of nobles:" (genitive):— lán a ꝺuꞃn, "the full of his fist;" an paꞃꝺ mópán aꞃꝹꞇꝺ aꞇꝹe, "had he much *of money?*" cꞃaoꝺ ꝺꞃaoꞇꝹꞇn aꞇuꞃ a lán áꞃꞇneaꝺ uꞃꞃe, "a branch of blackthorn and its full *of sloes* on it."

2. The adjective in the comparative degree takes ná (or ꞇná or ꞇoná) before the noun which follows it; as ꞇꞃ bꞇnne a ceól ná lon 'ꞃná ꞃmól, "sweeter is her voice (music) than the blackbird and than the thrush."

Exception:—If the adjective in the comparative degree has ꝺe (" of it ") after it (see Idiom 39, p. 132), then ná is not used; as naꝺ bu ꞃeꞃꞃꝺe ꝺóꞇꝺ é, "that they would be none the better of it."

AGREEMENT AND COLLOCATION OF THE ADJECTIVE AND NOUN.

FIRST CASE: When the adjective is joined immediately with the noun.

When the adjective is joined immediately with the noun as a qualifying or limiting term (as in the English "a high tower"), in this case the following **ten** rules apply.

1. The natural position of the adjective is after its noun; as caꝺlaꝺ mór, "a great fleet."

The chief exceptions to this are stated in the next **two** rules.

2. Monosyllabic adjectives are often placed before their nouns; as caol-ƥeaƈ, "slender man;" móƿ ƿaiƿƿᵹe, "great sea;" ᵭuƈ-ċaƿƿaiᵹ, "black rock."

3. This is especially the case with the following adjectives, some of which are hardly ever used after their nouns: ᵭeaᵹ, good; ᵭƿoċ, evil; ƿíoƿ, true; nuaᵭ, new; ƿean, old; ᵭuaċ, left-handed.

Numeral adjectives form another exception, for which see next chapter.

4. When a name consists of two words, the adjective comes between them; as Sliaᵬ aóᵬal-móƿ Luaċƿa, "the tremendous-large Slieve Lougher;" Eaṁuin ṁín áluinn Maċa, "the smooth beautiful Eman Macha."

5. When the adjective follows its noun, it agrees with it in gender, number, and case; as ƿeaƿ maiƈ, a good man; ƿᵹéul na mná móiƿe, "the story of the large woman" (gen. sing. fem.); aƿ an aióᵬéiƿ ionᵹanƈaiᵹ, "on the wonderful abyss" (dat. sing. fem.).

6. When the adjective follows its noun, the initial of the adjective is aspirated under the circumstances already stated in Par. 6, page 10; or eclipsed in the circumstance stated in Par. 3, page 34.

7. When two or more nouns are joined together, and are followed by an adjective which qualifies or limits them, all and each, the adjective agrees with the last: in other words, it is the last noun only that influences the adjective both in grammatical inflection, and in initial change; as ᵬean aᵹuƿ ƿeaƿ maiƈ, a good woman and man; ƿeaƿ aᵹuƿ ᵬean ṁaiƈ, a good man and woman.

8. When the adjective precedes the noun, as in Rules 2 and 3, above, it does not agree with the noun, i.e., it is not influenced by the noun,

either as to inflection, or as to initial change; in other words, the simple form of the adjective is used, whatever be the number, gender, or case of the noun; as móp uairle, "great nobles;" vo móp uairle, "to [the] great nobles;" bán cnoic Eireann, "the fair hills of Erin;" luaṫ barca, swift barks; fíor rgeul, "a true story;" fíor rgeulta, "true stories."

9. When the adjective precedes the noun, the adjective and the noun are sometimes regarded as one compound word; and the initial of the noun is aspirated (in accordance with Par. 4, page 10): also the vowel of the adjective is often modified by the rule caol le caol &c.; as Deirdre an Duib-ṗleibe, "Deirdre of Dubh-Shliabh;" óig-ḃean, a young woman.

10. When the adjective precedes the noun, the initial of the adjective is subject to the same changes as if the adjective and the noun formed one word, i.e., one noun; as gáire na n-óig-ṗear, "the laughter of the young men;" an t-árd-ollaṁ rin, "that chief professor;" an t-rean-ḃean boċt, "the poor old woman."

SECOND CASE: When the adjective is connected with the noun by a verb.

When the adjective, instead of being joined immediately with the noun, is predicated of, or ascribed to, the noun by a verb of any kind (as in the English, "the man is tall," "he considered the man tall," "he made the knife sharp," "the roads were made straight"), in this case, the following **three** rules apply.

1. When an adjective is predicated of a noun by the verb tá, it follows the noun, the order being:—verb, noun, adjective; as tá an lá breáġ, the day is fine.

2. When an adjective is predicated of a noun

by the verb ιр, it precedes the noun, the order being :—verb, adjective, noun ; as ιр bреάᵹ аn lά ό, it is a fine day.

3. When an adjective is ascribed to a noun by a verb of any kind, the adjective does not agree with the noun, i.e., the adjective is not influenced by it, either initially or inflectionally ; in other words, the simple form of the adjective, without inflection, is used, whatever be the number or gender of the noun ; and the initial of the adjective is neither aspirated nor eclipsed (unless under the influence of some other word), as ιр аιbιnn bо ċυаιn асар bо ċаlаbυιрϲ асар bо ṁаᵹа mínрсоϲ-аċа саеṁάιlnе, " delightful are thy harbours, and thy bays, and thy flowery lovely plains :" аᵹυр сροιсnе рéιϲеаḋ ар nа n-bаϲύᵹаḋ bеарᵹ, " and rams' skins dyed red."—(Exodus, xxv. 5).

The first example (from the story of the Children of Usna), exhibits both an agreement according to Rule 5, page 101, and a disagreement according to the present rule. For the three nouns are plural, and the two last adjectives which qualify them directly are in the plural form, while the first adjective аιbιnn (modern аоιbιnn) which is asserted of them by ιр, is in its simple form (the plural would be аιbιnnе or аιbnе). In the second example сροιсnе is plural, while bеарᵹ is singular (plural bеарᵹа).

Observe the difference in meaning in the following, according to agreement or disagreement :—bо ριᵹnе ρé nа bnаιϲ ᵹlара ; bо ριᵹnе ρé nа bnаιϲ ᵹlар : in the first the adjective agrees with the noun, (both being plural), showing that it qualifies it directly (Rule 5, p. 101) and that the meaning is, " he made the green mantles ;" in the second there is no agreement, (the adjective being singular and the noun plural), showing that the adjective is connected with the noun by the verb (Rule 3 above), and that the meaning is, " he made the mantles green."

CHAPTER IV.

NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

1. A numeral adjective, whether cardinal or
ordinal, when it consists of one word, goes before
its noun; as τρí ϼιρ, three men; ϼαn ϋαρα h-άιτ,
"in the second place."

.2 Numeral adjectives, both cardinal and ordi-
nal, from 11 to 19 inclusive, take their nouns
between the simple numeral and ϋέαϩ; as τρí
capaιll ϋέαϩ, thirteen horses; αn ᾽τρεαρ ἑapaιll
ϋέαϩ, the thirteenth horse.

3. Αοn, one; ϋά, two; ἑέαϋ, first; and τρεαρ,
third, cause aspiration; as αοn ϸεαρ, one man; ϋά
ṁnαοι, two women; αἡ τρεαρ ϸεαἐτ, "the third
occasion."

4. The numerals ϼεαἐτ, οἐτ, nαοι, and ϋειἐ,
cause eclipsis (except the noun begins with ϼ, in
which case there is no change), as ϼεαἐτ m-bliαϋ-
na, "seven years;" οἐτ m-ba, "eight cows;"
nαοι n-αιϋne, "nine rivers;" ϋειἐ ϋ-ϼιρ, "ten
men."

5. The numerals τρí, ceιτρe, cúιϩ, ϼέ, the or-
dinals (except ἑέαϋ and τρεαρ: Rule 3 above),
and the multiples of ten, cause no initial change;
as ceιτρe ϩαϋαιρ, "four hounds."

6. Αοn, one, and all the multiples of ten, take
their nouns in the singular number; as αοn lά,
one day; ἑέαϋ ceαnn, a hundred heads (lit. "a
hundred head," just as we say "a hundred head
of cattle"); τρí caοϩαϋ laοἐ, "three times fifty
heroes;" míle beαn, "a thousand women."

7. Ꝺá, two, takes both the article and the noun in the singular number; and if the noun be feminine, it will be in the dative form; as ꝺá ꝼeaṗ, two men; an ꝺá láṁ, the two hands. (See next two rules).

8. If the noun following ꝺá be in the genitive, it will be in the genitive plural; as lán a ꝺá láṁ, "the full of his two hands."

9. Although ꝺá takes the article and noun in the singular, yet the adjectives and pronouns referring to the noun will be in the plural, and the noun may also take a plural verb; as ꝺo ᵹluaiʀeaꝺaʀ an ꝺá ṫʀéiṁṁḟleaꝺ ʀin, "these two strong heroes went;" ʀo ᵹaḃ a ꝺá ꝼleaᵹ ċʀóꝼaiʀʀinᵹe ċʀann-ʀeaṁʀa aʀ na ḃ-ꝼoċʀuᵹaꝺ a ḃ-ꝼuil naṫʀaċ neiṁe, "he took his two wide-socketed thick-handled spears, *they* having been bathed in the blood of serpents." Here the two adjectives and the pronoun referring to ꝼleaᵹ, are plural.

CHAPTER V.

THE PRONOUN.

I. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

1. Personal pronouns agree with the nouns they represent, in gender, number, and person; as iʀ maiṫ an bean í, she is a good woman; iʀ maiṫ an ꝼeaʀ é, he is a good man; iʀ móʀ na ꝺaoine iaꝺ, they are great men.

2. A personal pronoun, or a possessive pronoun, which stands for a sentence or part of a sentence, is

third person singular masculine; as ᵭᴀ m-beiᴅír ꝼir Eireann an ᵬap n-aᵹaiᵬ, naċ bu ꝼeiꝛꝛᴅe ᵭóiᵬ é, "if the men of Erin were against it, they would not be the better of *it;*" (here the pronoun é stands for the sentence).

3. The accusative forms of the personal pro-nouns are often used as nominatives: always with ir (see Rule 18, p. 113), and with passive verbs (see Rule 20, p. 113); and sometimes with other verbs; as máꞃ maiᴅ na leaᵹa riᵬ, aꞃ eiríon, " 'if ye are the good physicians,' says *he*."

II. POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

1. A possessive pronoun is never used without a noun.

<small>In English there are distinct forms of the possessive pro-nouns which can stand without nouns (mine, thine, hers, &c.), but there are no forms corresponding to these in Irish.</small>

2. The possessive pronouns precede their nouns; as mo máᴛaiꞃ, my mother; a ᵹ-caꞃbaᵬ, their chariot.

3. The possessives mo, my; ᵬo, thy; and a, his; aspirate the initials of their nouns; as mo ċeann, my head; ᵬo ċoꞃ, thy foot; a ṁeuꞃ, his finger.

4. The possessive a, her, requires the initial of its noun in its primitive state (neither aspirated nor eclipsed), and if the initial be a vowel, it pre-fixes h; as a máᴛaiꞃ, her mother; a h-aᴛaiꞃ, her father.

5. The possessives áꞃ, our; ᵬaꞃ, your; and a, their; eclipse the initial consonants of their nouns (except ꞃ, on which they exert no in-fluence), and prefix n to vowels; as áꞃ ᵬ-ᴛíꞃ, our country; ᵬaꞃ m-ba, your cows; a n-aᴛaiꞃ, their father.

6. Possessive pronouns amalgamated with prepositions (see p. 45) have the same influence over the initials of their nouns, as they have in their uncompounded state; as ꝺom ċꞃoiꝺe, to my heart; óna ꞗ-cꞃꞁꝛ, from their country.

7. The manner of using the emphatic increase after the possessive pronouns has been already pointed out in Par. 3, page 45. For an additional Rule of possessives, see Rule 2, page 105.

III. RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

1. The relative follows its antecedent and precedes its verb; as an cé a ꞗuibalꝼaꞃ, the person who shall walk.

2. The relative aspirates the initial of its verb; as an laoċ a ṁaꞃꞗ an c-aċaċ, "the hero who slew the giant." To this the next rule is an exception.

3. When the relative a signifies "all that" (see p. 47) it eclipses the initial of its verb; as a ꞗ-ꝑuil ó Ꝡaillïꞗ buꝺ ꝺeaꞃ, "all that is from Galway southwards;" ꝺo ꞃéiꞃ a n-ꝺubꞃamaꞃ, "according to what we have said."

4. When the relative a is governed by a preposition, expressed or understood, and is followed immediately by a verb to which it is not the nominative, the initial of the verb (except ꝑ) is eclipsed; as a ꞃé nïꝺ ïmoꞃꞃa ꝺá ꞗ-cáïnïc a báꞅ, "(the following) is the circumstance, indeed, *from which came* his death;" an ꞗoiċ ïna n-ïċïꝺïꞃ, "the tent in which they used to eat;" a ꝺubaïꞃc Ꝼïonn �o n-ꝺïonꝫnaꝺ (ꞃïċ) ꝫïꝺ bé nóꞃ a n-ꝺïonꝫnaꝺ Ꝺïaꞃmaïꝺ í, "Finn said that he would make (peace) in whatever manner Diarmaid would make it" (here the preposition ann is understood ·

ᵹıᵬ bé nóp ann a n-ᵬıonᵹnaᵬ Ōıapmaıᵬ í, what-
ever the manner *in which* Diarmaid would make
it.) (See next rule.)

5. If, in the case stated in the last rule, the verb
is in the past tense, with the particle po or ᵬo, the
initial is not eclipsed, but aspirated
(Pars. 1 and 4. p. 58); as ᵬıᴄ ap ᴄuıᴄ Ōapa Ōeapᵹ,
"the place in which fell Dara Dearg."

6. The relative precedes the verb which governs
it in the accusative (as in English); as an ᴄíp a
ᵹpaᵬuıᵹım, the country which I love.

7. As the relative has no inflection for case, the
construction must determine whether the relative
is the nominative to the verb which follows it,
or is governed by it in the accusative; as an
capa a ᵹpaᵬuıᵹıᵬ mé, the friend whom I love;
an capa a ᵹpaᵬuıᵹeap mé, the friend who loves
me.

8. The relative is often omitted both in the
nominative and in the accusative; as oᵹlaoᴄ ᵬa
ṁuınnᴄıp Nín ṁıc Péıl ᴄaımıc uaıᵬ ᵬo ᵬpaᴄ na
Eıpıonn, "a youth of the people of Nin Mac Peil
(who) came from him to view Erin." (ın leabap
po pᴄpıoᵬ (Cambpenpıp) ᵬo ᴄuapapᵹᵬaıl Eıpıonn,
"the book (which) Cambrensis wrote on the
history of Erin."

9. The relative a is often disguised by combina-
tion with other words and particles, especially
with po, the mark of the past tense; as an ᴄíp óp
ᴄaınıc me, "the country from which I came"
(here óp = ó   a po); pláıᵹ lép mapᵬaᵬ noí míle
ᵬíoᵬ, "a plague, by which were killed nine thou-
sand of them" (here lép = le a po); an ᴄíp ᵬá
ᵬ-ᴄáınıc pé, the country to which I came (ᵬá=
ᵬo a); lá ᵬap comópaᵬ aonaᴄ le pıᵹ Eıpeann, "a
day on which was convoked an assembly by the
king of Erin" (ᵬap=ᵬo a po); ní ᵬeaᵹ ᵫompa ap

ḟloinneaṙ ṗéin maṗ eiṗic, "I do not think it little what I have named as an *eric*." (ⅭⅠⲣ=a ⲣⲟ, in which a means "all that:" Par. 3, page 47.)

IV. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

1. The demonstrative pronouns follow their nouns or pronouns; as an ⲣeaⲣ ⲣⲓⲛ, that man; cⲓa h-é ⲣⲓⲛ? who is that?

Exception:—When the verb ⲓⲣ in any of its forms is understood; as ⲣúⲃ ⲃaⲣ ʒ-cⲩⲓⲃ, "yonder (is) your meal;" ⲣⲟ aⲛ lá, this is the day.

2. If the noun be followed by one or more adjectives, the demonstrative pronoun comes last; as cⲓa aⲛ ⲣeaⲣ ⲃallaċ ⲃⲓⲛⲛⲃⲣⲓaċⲣaċ úⲃ? "Who is that freckled sweet-worded man?"

V. INTERROGATIVE AND INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

1. An interrogative pronoun comes first in the sentence; as cá ⲃ-ⲣⲩⲓl mo leaⲃaⲣ? where is my book? cⲓa aⲛ laoċ úⲃ aⲣ ʒⲩalaⲓⲛⲛ ʒⲟⲓll? "who is that hero at the shoulder of Goll?"

This rule holds good even when the interrogative is governed by a preposition, i.e., the preposition follows the interrogative that it governs; as caⲃ aⲣ ⲧⲩ? out of what (place art) thou? ʒⲟ ⲃe maⲛ ⲧá ⲧú? how do you do? (literally "like to what art thou?") cⲛeⲩⲃ ⲣá aⲛ eⲓⲣʒeaⲃaⲣ, "what for did ye rise?"

2. When ⲩⲓle precedes its noun, it means "every;" when it follows the noun it means "all;" as ⲣláⲛ óⲛ ⲩⲓle ʒalaⲣ, "sound from every sickness;" ⲃⲟ ⲃaċaⲃ aⲛ cⲓⲛe ⲃaoⲛa ⲩⲓle ʒⲟ h-aoⲛ oċⲧaⲣ, "all the human race was drowned, all to (except) a single eight."

There are occasional exceptions; as ⲟⲡⲟⲛʒ aⲓⲛⲃⲣⲓⲟⲣaċ ⲓⲣ ⲛa h-ⲩⲓle ⲣⲩⲃáⲓlⲓⲃ, "people ignorant in *all* virtues" (in this passage from Keating, ⲩⲓle means "all" though it precedes its noun).

CHAPTER VI.

THE VERB.

1. As a general rule the verb precedes its nominative; as vo ṡluaır Pepṡup, "Fergus went;" vo claoıveav Mac Ꝟappaıv, "Mac Garraidh was defeated." (See next Rule.)

2. When the nominative is a relative or an interrogative pronoun, it precedes the verb; and sometimes also in poetry, the nominative, even though a noun, precedes the verb; as an ce a ṗıubaıpap, the person who will walk; cpeuv aca annpo? what is here? Oeópaıvċe píopa ṡan pṡıċ ṡan pop míanaıv a v-cíp 'p a n-vúċċap, "perpetual exiles without pause or rest, long-for their country and their native-home."

3. When the verb is transitive, i.e., when it governs the accusative (see Rule 9, p. 111), the usual order is verb, nominative, object; as vo aıṡel Conċobap vopaċ, "Conchobhar addressed Borach;" vo líon Ꝟpáınne an copn, "Grainne filled the goblet."

4. But when the accusative is a relative or an interrogative pronoun, the usual order is, pronoun (or accusative), verb, nominative; as an laoċ a ċonaıpc mé ané, the hero *whom I saw* yesterday; cav veıp cú? what sayest thou?

5. When the verb cá is used, the usual order is, verb, nominative, predicate; as cáıv na peulca po-lonnpaċ, the stars are very bright.

6. When the verb ıp, expressed or understood, is used, the usual order is, verb, predicate, nominative; as ba bınne a ṡlóp ná ceól na n-éun, "*her voice*

was sweeter than the music of the birds:" ní ραδα uaic an áic, "not (is) far from thee the place."

Exception.—If the article is used before the predicate, or if the predicate is a proper name, the order is, verb, subject, predicate; as ιr cuρα an cíρ ρο-αοιδιnn, "thou art the delightful country;" ιr mé Cian mac Cáince, "I am Cian, the son of Cainte:" an cu Pionn? "art thou Finn?"

7. The only cases in which there is agreement between the verb and its nominative, are (1) when the nominative and verb are both third person singular ; (2) when a noun or pronoun in third plural has a verb in third plural, in accordance with Par. 9, p. 50.

It may be doubted whether (1) is a genuine case of agreement; and the general absence of agreement between verb and nominative is further exemplified in the following rule.

8. When two or more nouns, whether singular or plural, joined by a conjunction, are nominatives to one verb, the verb has the third person singular form; as δο ξluair bρεαρ αξur na δραοιce ρómpa, "Breas and the druids went forward."

9. A transitive verb governs the noun or pronoun which is the object of the action, in the accusative case; as buail é, strike him; δο cuiρεαδαρ Cuaca De Danann ceó δραοιδεαcta ι n-a δ-cimceall péin, "the Tuatha de Dananns *put* a magical *mist* around themselves."

10. The initial of a verb in the infinitive mood is aspirated, unless the aspiration is prevented by some special influence. For such an influence see Par. 2, p. 60.

11. The preposition le or ρe before the infinitive active often gives it a passive signification ; as (leaδαιρ eile) acá ρe δ-ραιcrin ι n-Eiριnn, "(other books) which are *to be seen* in Erin."

But in many such constructions the preposition expresses purpose, and the signification is active; as αξur ξο m-bíο ollaiṁ ρe δénaṁ ρeille aιρ a céile, "and that they are ready *to do* treachery on each other."

12. The infinitive, even without the preposition le, has often a passive signification; as Ꝼiaċṛa mac Ailene tiᵹeaṛna Muᵹḋoṛn do ṁaṛḃaḋ, "Fiachra, son of Ailene, lord of Mourne, to be slain" (lit. "Fiachra, &c., to slay"): aᵹuṛ an ꝼeaṛ naċ tioḃṛaḋ (an cíoṛ) ṛin uaiḋ, a ṛṛón do ḃuain óna ċeann de, "and the man who would not pay that tribute from him, his nose to be cut off from his head."

13. One verb governs another that follows it or depends upon it in the infinitive mood; as da m-baḋ naċ ṫaᵹṛaḋ clanna Moiṛne d'iaṛṛaiḋ na ᵹ-caoṛ ṛin, "if it were so that the Clann Morna had not come to seek those berries."

The following very important rule was first enunciated by O'Donovan, and is given here in his own words (" Irish Grammar," p. 387.)

14. " When the governed verb is one expressing motion or gesture, which does not govern the accusative, the sign do is never prefixed; as duḃaiṛt ṛé liom dul ᵹo Coṛcaiᵹ, he told me to go to Cork."

15. If the noun which is the object of a transitive verb in the infinitive mood follows the verb, it is in the genitive case; as tanᵹadaṛ caḃlaċ móṛ do ḋéanaṁ coᵹuiḋ, "a great fleet came to make war" (nom. coᵹaḋ, war, gen. coᵹuiḋ); do ṁilleaḋ ċloinne Liṛ, "to kill the children of Lir."

16. A noun or pronoun which is the object of a transitive verb in the infinitive mood often precedes the verb, and in this case it is (not in the genitive, as in the last rule, but) in the accusative; as, aᵹuṛ iṛeaḋ do ᵹníoḋ, dá ċuaille do ċuṛ i b-talṁain aᵹuṛ ceann an t-ṛnáiṫe do ċeanᵹal da ᵹaċ cuaille díoḃ, aᵹuṛ uḃall do ċuṛ aiṛ ṁullaċ cuaille aca, "and it is what he used to do, two poles to put in the earth, and the end of a thread to tie to each pole of them, and an apple to put on the top of a pole of them."

17. The active participle of a transitive verb governs the noun which is the object of the action, in the genitive case; as aᵹ bꞃui⁇neaⴆ an óiꞃ, "smelting the gold" (lit. "smelting of the gold"); ⴆo bí an ᵹaoⴆal ꞃo aᵹ múnaⴆ ꞃcol, "this Gaodhal was teaching schools" (lit. "teaching of schools"); aᵹ ⴇoⴒailⴇ na ⴇalṁan, "digging the ground."

18. The verb iꞃ in any of its forms expressed or understood, takes the accusative form of a personal pronoun as its nominative; as iꞃ í céaⴆꞃaⴆ ⴆꞃoinᵹe ꞃe ꞃeanⴇuꞃ, "*it* is the opinion of some historians;" iꞃ mic ꞃíᵹ ᵹo ꞃíꞃinneaⴄ iaⴆ, "*they* are truly sons of a king;" aᵹuꞃ ꞃiaꞃꞃaiᵹeaꞃ an ꞃíᵹ cia h-iaⴆ ꞃéin, "and the king asks who *they* (are)."

19. The verb iꞃ is very often omitted, especially in negative and interrogative sentences, and in answers to questions; as beaⴇa an ꞃⴇaꞃaiⴆe ꞃíꞃinne, "truth (is) the food of the historian;" ceann Ⴆhiaꞃmuⴆa Uí Ⴆhuiⴒne an ceann úⴆ, "that head (is) the head of Diarmaid O'Duibhne;" cia ⴇuꞃa? miꞃi Iollan, "who (art) thou? I (am) Iollan;" an ꞃíoꞃ ꞃin, "whether (is) that true? ní miꞃi, "(it is) not I."

20. A verb in the passive voice takes the accusative form of a personal pronoun as its nominative; as ⴆéanⴇaꞃ é, it is done; buailⴇeaꞃ iaⴆ they are struck.

CHAPTER VII.

PREPOSITIONS.

1. A simple preposition governs the dative (including the ablative, for which there is no distinct

inflection); as táinic ré ʒo Corcaiʒ, he came *to Cork;* aʒ coir an ʒ-pléiḃe, *at the foot* of the mountain; airṁíú cuiú ʙo na h-úʒʙaraiḃ, "*some of the authors* reckon." (See next rule for exception.)

2. The preposition iúir generally governs the accusative in the singular, and the dative in the plural; as iúir Corcaċ aʒur Luimneaċ, between Cork and Limerick; iúir na cóiʒeaúaiḃ, "between the provinces."

3. The prepositions ann, ʒo, iar, ria, le or re, and ʒar, take r before an, the article, the r being sometimes joined with the preposition and sometimes with the article; as annr an leaḃar or ann ran leaḃar, in the book; leir an ḃ-pear, with the man. (See par. 7, page 17.)

4. The compound prepositions govern their nouns in the genitive; as úo puʒ an ʒonna rir a n-aʒaiú an ċnuic, "he brought the tun with him *against the hill;*" a ḃ-riaúnuire ḃ-pear n-Eirionn, "*in presence of* the men of Erin;" úo ʒluaireaúar clann Ʒuireann rompa ú'ionnruiúe an ċaża, "the children of Tuireann went forwards *towards the battle.*"

The following prepositions, ċum, towards; úála, as to; úéir, after; iomċura, as to; mearʒ or amearʒ, amongst; réir, according to; and ʒimċioll, about, although having the form of simple prepositions, are in reality compound, and take their nouns in the genitive. See end of Par. 3, p. 88.

As a compound preposition consists of a noun governed by a simple preposition, it is in reality the noun-part of the compound preposition that governs the noun in the genitive, in accordance with Rule 1, page 95: thus the expression above, a n-aʒaiú an ċnuic, is literally "in the face of the hill," where ċnuic is governed in the genitive by aʒaiú, face; and so of the others.

5. The simple prepositions, except úo, úe, ʒan, and iúir, generally cause eclipsis in singular nouns when the article is used; as ó'n ʒ-cnoc rin, "from

that hill;" aʒ an m-baile na h-inre ṫiar, "at the town of the island in the west." (See pages 17, 18.)

6. The simple prepositions generally cause aspiration when the article is not expressed; as aiɼ baɼɼ an croinn, "on the top of the tree;" ó múraiḃ na Ceaṁraċ, "from the ramparts of Tara."

Exception 1: a or ı, ıaɼ, and ʒo (when it means "with") cause eclipsis without the article; as a m-baıle aċa cliaċ, in Baile-atha-cliath (Dublin); ıaɼ n-ḃílınn, "after the deluge."

Exception 2: aʒ, le, and sometimes ʒo, cause no change in the initial, whether they may either aspirate or not; as ɼláɼ le Maıʒ, "farewell to (the river) Maigue;" o'n c-Sıonuınn ɼoıɼ ʒo ɼaıɼɼʒe, "from the Shannon east *to the sea*."

7. When a simple preposition ending in a vowel comes before the possessive a (whether it signifies *his, her,* or *their*), the letter n is inserted between the vowels; as cɼe n-a baɼaıḃ, "*through his* hands;" an lá ʒo n-a láɼ c-ɼoıllɼe, "the day *with its* abundant light."

Except after ḃo and ḃe; as caḃaıɼ ɼéuɼ ḃá ċaɼall give grass to his horse; baın ʒeuʒ ḃ'á ʒ-cɼann, take a branch from their tree.

Before any other word beginning with a vowel, the letter h is usually inserted after these prepositions; as ḃo ċuaıḃ ɼe ʒo h-Clḃaın, he went to Alban (Scotland).

PART IV.

IDIOMS.

AN idiom, in the sense in which it is used here, may be defined:—An expression that has acquired by usage a certain meaning, which becomes lost in a word-for-word translation into another language; so that in order to convey the true meaning in that other language, the form of expression must be changed.

Thus, "τά an leaḃar aɼ an buine" is an idiom, for its sense is lost in the word-for-word translation, "the book is at the man;" and in order to convey the true meaning, the English expression must be changed to "the man has the book."

Idioms constitute one of the chief difficulties in learning any language; and the student is recommended to master this Part, in which the principal idioms of the Irish language are explained and illustrated.

1. The Infinitive governing Possessive Pronouns.

The infinitive of a transitive verb governs its object in the genitive (Syntax, Rule 15, p. 112). When the object, instead of being a noun, is a personal pronoun, then, according to the analogy of the Rule quoted, it should be in the genitive case. But the genitive of a personal pronoun is a possessive pronoun; and possessive pronouns precede the words they refer to; so that the pronoun which represents the object of the action, is a possessive, and precedes the infinitive, influencing its initial as if it were a noun (see Syntax, p. 106, Rules 3, 4, 5). This gives rise to idiomatic expressions like the following, which are of very frequent occurrence.

	English.	Irish.	Contracted to.
To strike	me,	bo mo ḃualaḃ,	bom' ḃualaḃ.
	thee,	bo bo ḃualaḃ,	bob' ḃualaḃ.
	him,	bo a ḃualaḃ,	bá ḃualaḃ.
	her,	bo a ḃualaḃ,	bá ḃualaḃ.
	us,	bo áṛ m-ḃualaḃ,	báṛ m-ḃualaḃ.
	you,	bo ḃuṛ m-ḃualaḃ,	(not contracted)
	them,	bo a m-ḃualaḃ,	bá m-ḃualaḃ.

These may be translated literally, " to my striking," " to their striking," &c.

A like construction prevails in the case of a transitive participle : aᵹ a ḃualaḋ, striking him : aᵹ a ḟon, striking her : aᵹ a m-ḃualaḋ, striking us, &c. In this construction the participle may itself be governed in the genitive case by a noun :—táinic mian a manḃċa ḋam ḟéin, " a desire to kill them, has come to me " (lit. " a desire for the killing of them," or " of their killing.")

2. Compound Prepositions governing Possessive Pronouns.

A compound preposition governs the genitive (Rule 4, p. 114) ; and when the governed word is not a noun but a personal pronoun, this last becomes a possessive, and goes before the noun-part of the compound preposition, giving rise to idiomatic phrases, corresponding with those quoted in last Idiom. Example : aip ɼon, for the sake o᾽ ; aip a ɼon, for his sake ; aip ḃun ɼon, for your sake, &c. Do ċuaiḋ Ḋiapmaiḋ ḃá h-éiɼ, Diarmaid went after her : táinic cinneaɼ oppa ɼein, aᵹuɼ aɼ a ṗhóċc 'n-a n-ḋiaiḋ, " sickness came upon themselves, and on their posterity after them."

A similar construction often occurs with the compound adverbs. Example : caɼ aiɼ, backwards ; ḋo ċuaiḋ ɼé caɼ a aiɼ, he went backwards ; ḋo ċuaiḋ ɼí caɼ a h-aiɼ, she went backwards ; ḋo ċuaiḋ ɼiaḋ caɼ a n-aiɼ, they went backwards, &c.

3. To die.

" To die," is very often expressed in Irish by a phrase meaning " to find death :" the verb ɼaᵹ, find, being used for this purpose, in its various forms ; as, an ḋapa bliaᵹain ḋá éiɼ ɼin ɼuaip Ipial ḃáp, " the second year after that Irial found death ;" aᵹuɼ máɼ ann acá a n-ḋán ḃaiṫ ḃáp ḃ᾽ɼáᵹail, " and if it be here that it is in fate for me death to find " (i. e., " that it is fated for me to die.")

There is, however, a single verb ḃ'euᵹ, meaning to die, but it is not used so often as the above. The following example exhibits both forms :—A ḃeiṫ cpιḋ ḃo na ɼeanuᵹḋapaiḃ ᵹun aḃ a nᵹleann ḃa loċa ɼuaip naoiṁ Paḃnuiᵹ ḃáp ; bioḋ ᵹo n-abpaiḋ ḋpunᵹ oile ᵹunaḃ ann

Apṁaċa b'euɼ ɼé, " some of the old authors say that it is
in Glendalough St. Patrick found death, although another
party say that it is in Armagh he died."

4. Nominative Absolute.

What is called the nominative absolute in English is
expressed in Irish by the preposition aiⱦ (on), or iaⱦ (after),
placed before the participle, and the preposition bo (to)
before the noun; which will be understood from the follow-
ing examples :—aⱦ m-beiⱦ aⱦa ⱦaba bo Ċoⱦmac aɼ a
b-ⱦeiⱦioṁ, " Cormac, having been a long time watching
them " (lit. " on being a long time to Cormac a-watching of
them "): aɼuⱦ aiⱦ m-beiⱦ ollaṁ bon luiⱦɼ, " and the ship
being ready " (lit. " and on being ready to the ship "); aɼuⱦ
aiⱦ n-bul a luiⱦɼ bóib, " and they having gone into a
ship :" (lit. " and on going into a ship to them "): iaⱦ
m-beiⱦ ⱦⱦéan iⱦ an ⱦíⱦ bóib, " they having grown strong
in the country " (lit. " after being strong in the country to
them ").

5. To have no help for a thing.

The Irish phrase corresponding to this is " to have no
strength (neaⱦⱦ) on a thing :" the " having " being expressed
in accordance with Idiom 34, p. 130. Ní b-ⱦuil neaⱦⱦ
aɼum aiⱦ an niⱦ ⱦiⱦ, I have no help for that thing—I
cannot help that (lit. " there is to me no strength on that
thing "). Aɼuⱦ a buⱦaiⱦⱦ Ɠⱦáinne naċ ⱦaib neaⱦⱦ
aice ⱦéiⱦ aiⱦ, " and Grainne said that she had no help for
it " (or " could not help it," " could not have prevented it ").
Sometimes léiɼeaⱦ, remedy or cure, is used in the same way
as neaⱦⱦ.

6. To cause a thing to be done.

To cause a thing to be done, to have it done, to see that it
is done, to order it to be done, is often expressed in Irish
by bo ċuⱦ (or bo ⱦaⱦaiⱦⱦ) ⱦá beaⱦⱦa, " to put (or bring, or
give), under notice. Aɼuⱦ ⱦo ċuⱦ Mioḋaċ ⱦa n-beaⱦⱦa
úiⱦ Iⱦⱦe Ⱦuile bo ċuⱦ ⱦúib," and Miodhach caused the
mould (or soil) of Inis Tuile to be placed under you :" bo
ⱦuɼ (níɼ) bⱦeaⱦ báiⱦ aiⱦ an m-bⱦeiⱦeaṁ, aɼuⱦ ⱦuɼ ⱦa
beaⱦⱦa a ċⱦoċaⱦ "(the king), passed sentence of death on
the judge, and had him hanged " (" put under notice him to
hang," or " his hanging ").

7. Number of individuals of which a company is composed.

The number of individuals of which any collection of persons or things is made up, is often inserted, in the nominative form, in a narrative sentence, without any syntactical connexion with the rest of the sentence. αʒυρ τάιніc lιη ηόιṁe αρnαṁάραċ, caoʒαc caιρρτeaċ, ό Shίoτ δυιὄὄ Ɖeιηʒ, " and Lir set out on the morrow, fifty chariot-men, from Shee Bove Derg " (i.e., *with* fifty chariots); αʒυρ τάιніc δυὄὄ Ɖeαρʒ, naoι céaὄ ριċὄeaὄ, ᶄα n-ιοnηρυιʒe ; " and Bove Derg came, twenty-nine hundred men, towards them."

This is like the English :—" The duke began his march next morning, 20,000 strong."

8. Passive Verbs used impersonally.

A passive verb is often used impersonally; as ʒaὄρa ċuʒaιnn aṁaὄ, αʒυρ nί laṁρan ρuιlυʒaὄ ορτ, " come forth to us and no one will dare to wound thee :" (literally, " and *it will not be dared* [to put] wounding on thee).

This form of expression is of very frequent occurrence in the older narrative writings :—thus instead of " they advance ; they plunge into the (river) Crond," the writer expresses himself in this way :—" it is advanced ; it is plunged into the Crond."

9. Nominatives before Infinitives and Participles.

Instead of the usual assertive construction, consisting of a verb with its nominative (noun or pronoun), the following construction is often adopted :—the verb is put in the infinitive or participial form, and the subject (whether noun or personal pronoun) is placed before it, (the pronoun being in the accusative form (but whether the noun is nominative or accusative cannot be determined, as there is no distinction of form) ; as ιρ αṁlaὄ δί Naιρι αʒυρ Ɖeιρὄρe, αʒυρ an ċennċaιṁ eταρρα, αʒυρ ιaὄ αʒ ιмιρτ uιρρe, " it is in this manner Naisi and Deirdre were (seated), and the Cennchaimh (a chess board) between them, *and they playing on it;* ιρ αṁlaὄ δο bί Coḃċaċ, αʒυρ é αʒ ρeαρʒaὄ, " it is thus Cobhthach was, *and he* pining away ;" cuιριορ ρceula ʒo blάénuιὄ é ρéιn δο beιṫ ann ριn, " he sends word to Blanid, *he* himself *to be* there " (i.e., " that he himself was there").

This form of expression is often adopted even when the verb or participle is (not expressed but) understood; as ꝺo ċuıⱃ (an cú) a ceann a n-ucc Ḋıaⱃmuꝺa aᵹuⱃ é ına ċoꝺla "(the hound) put her head in the breast of Diarmaid, *and he in his sleep.*"

10. One person meeting another.

"Donall met Fergus" is often expressed in Irish in the following way :—Ꝺo caⱃaꝺ Ⱇeⱃᵹuⱃ aⱃ Ꝺoṁnall ; literally " Fergus was met (or turned) on Donall." Ꝺo caⱃaꝺ Ꞃoıḃéll na Cⱃaıᵹe léıce oⱃuınn, " we met Eevel of Craglea" (lit. " Eevel of Craglea was met [or turned] on us "): cıa caⱃⱃaıꝺe oⱃm aċc ⱃcuaıꝺ-ḃean, " whom should I meet but the fair woman" (" who should be met on me ").

The same idea is expressed by the verb cáⱃla, happened: aᵹuⱃ cáⱃla oᵹlaċ oⱃⱃṫa aⱃ m-ḃoᵹaċ, " and they met a youth on the moor " (lit. " and a youth happened on [or to] them "): cⱃıallunꝺ ᵹo Slıaḃ Mıⱃ ᵹo ccáⱃla ḃanḃa ᵹo n-a ꝺⱃaoıcıḃ oⱃⱃa ann, " they travel to Slieve Mish until they met Banba with her druids there " (" until Banba with her druids happened on[or to] them ").

11. Although: Although not.

Ᵹıon ᵹo or ᵹıon ᵹuⱃ has two opposite meanings which can only be distinguished by the general sense of the passage : sometimes it means " although " (or " although that "), and sometimes " although not."

Although :—a Ⱇınn, aⱃ Oⱃᵹaⱃ, ᵹıon ᵹuⱃ Ⱇoıᵹⱃe mo ᵹaol ꝺuıcⱃe ná ꝺo Ḋıaⱃmuıꝺ O'Ḋuıḃne, " O Finn, says Oscar, 'although my relationship with thee is nearer than to Diarmaid O'Duibhne.' "

Although not :—ꝺo ḃéⱃunm cóṁaıⱃle ṁaıċ ꝺıḃ, a Ċlaınn Uıⱃnıᵹ, ᵹıon ᵹo n-ꝺéncaⱃ lıḃ í, " I shall give a good counsel to you, O sons of Usna, though it will not be done by you ;" ᵹıon ᵹuⱃ ċeáⱃⱃo mná an nıꝺ ⱃın, " *although* that proceeding would *not* be the business of a woman."

12. To be able.

To be able to do a thing is expressed in different ways. The most usual is by phrases of the type, ıⱃ Ⱇéıꝺıⱃ le, " it is possible with ;" as ıⱃ Ⱇéıꝺıⱃ l·om a ꝺéanaꝺ, I can do it (lit. " it is possible with me to do it :" see Idiom 1.)

Another, and more idiomatic way, is by the verb cıᵹım. " I

come," in its various moods and tenses; and with this verb "I
can do," or "I am able to do," is expressed by "it comes with
me to do;" as muna ḃ-ꞇıᵹeaḋ níp an caılleaċ ḃ'amap,
"unless he would be able to strike the hag" (lit. "unless it
would come with him the hag to strike"); aċꞇ níop ḃoılᵹe
pınn ıná pın map aꞇáıḃ áp ḃ-ꞇpí péımıōe ceanᵹaılꞇe
ınáp ḃ-pıaōnuıpe, aᵹup naċ ḃ-ꞇıᵹ pınn pᵹaoıleaḋ ḃíoḃ,
"and we think more grievous than that, how our three
champions are bound in our presence, and that we are not
able to free them:" ní ċuıpeann ualaċ oppaınn naċ ḃ-ꞇıᵹ
lınn a ıomċap, "he puts not a burden on us that we are not
able to bear."

Sometimes the verb ꞇá or ıp is used instead of ꞇıᵹ, and
also the preposition aᵹ instead of le; as ó naċ lıom ḃul ón
ᵹ-conꞇaḃaıpꞇ po, "since I cannot escape from this danger"
("since it is not with me to go from this danger": here ıp is
understood): ó naċ ḃ-puıl ḃul uaıō aᵹum, "since I cannot
escape from him" ("since it is not with me to go from him:"
here ꞇá and aᵹ are used, as in "possession:" Idiom 34.

13. One of a pair.

One of a pair is often expressed by the word leaċ, half:
leaċ-ċop, one foot (lit. half-foot). In this compound
the word leaċ is used adjectively, so that leaċ-ċop means,
not half of a foot, but a half-foot (i.e., a foot which is itself
a half, i.e., half of a pair). So also leaċ-púıl, one eye, leaċ-
ꞇaoḃ, one side, &c. Ip amlaıḋ ḃo ḃí an pıᵹ pın aᵹup leaċ-
laım aıpᵹıō aıp, "it is thus that king was, and one hand of
silver on him."

14. To be alone.

The word aonap, which the dictionaries now interpret as
meaning "alone," was originally a concrete numeral noun
like ꞇpıúp, cúıᵹeap, &c. (p. 39), and meant "one person;"
and this meaning it retains to some extent in its present ap-
plication:—ḃo pıuḃaḃ mé a'm aonap, I walked alone (lit.
"I walked in my one person" [see Idiom 42]: or "I walked as
one person"); ḃo pıuḃaḃ ꞇú aḃ' aonap, thou walkedst alone:
ḃo pıuḃaḃ pí n-a h-aonap, "she walked alone," &c.; am
aonap peal a pıuḃal ḃıōeap, "alone, of a time, walking I
was."

Another way of saying in Irish "he is alone" is "he is
with himself:" ꞇá mé lıom péım, I am alone ("I am with
myself"): ꞇá ꞇú leaċ péım, thou art alone: ꞇá pıaḃ leo
péım, they are alone: ꞇá mo máıꞇpín 'n-a coōlaḋ, aᵹup
mıpe lıom péım, "my mother is asleep, and I am alone."

15. One thing given for another.

When you give or take, sell or buy, one thing for another,
it is expressed in Irish by saying you give it, &c., *on* that
other, the preposition aiṗ being used. Do ṫuʒ ré ʈpí ba
aiṗ an ʒ-capall ṗin, he gave three cows for that horse: aiṗ
Éiṗe ní 'neóṗainn cia h-í, "for Erin I would not tell who
she is" ('neóṗainn for inneóṗainn : see p. 63).

In this sense, the preposition aiṗ is set before the noun of
price : do ċeannuiʒeaṗ an bó bán ṗin aiṗ ré púinc, I
bought that white cow for six pounds : ní h-ionʒna aṗ
Coṗmac, óiṗ iṗ maiṫ an luaċ ṫuʒaṗ uiṗṗe, "'No
wonder,' says Cormac, 'for good is the price I gave for it.'"

16. Debt.

The fact that Donall owes Fergus money, or that Donall
is under any obligation to pay money to Fergus, is expressed
by saying, "Fergus has money on Donall," the preposition aiṗ
being used before the name of the debtor, and the act of
"having" being expressed by ʈá and aʒ as in Idiom 34.
Ʈá ʈṗí púinc aʒ Ƒeṗʒur aiṗ Doṁnall, Donall owes three
pounds to Fergus : ʈá bean eile a n-Eoċaill a ḃ-ⴔuil aici
coṗóin aiṗ, there is another woman in Youghal to whom he
owes a crown" ("to whom or a crown on him"): iṗ aṁlaiḋ
do ḃí an ṗíʒ ṗo, aʒuṗ cíoṗ cáin móṗ ʈṗom aʒ Ƒoṁoṗaiʒ
aṗ Ʈuaʈa Dé Danann ṗe n-a linn, "it is how this king was,
and (that) the Fomorians had a great heavy tribute and rule
over the Tuatha De Dananns during his time" ("a great
heavy tribute and rule was with the Fomorians on the
Tuath De Dananns").

17. Asking, entreating, &c.

To ask, request, entreat, or demand of a person, is ex-
pressed by "to ask, &c., *on* that person:" iaṗṗ aiṗ Dhia na
ʒṗáṗa ṗin, "ask of God those graces."

18. Sensation, suffering, &c.

That a person is hungry, thirsty, cold, afraid, sick, &c., is
expressed in Irish by saying that hunger, thirst, cold, fear, sick-
ness, &c., is *on* him, the preposition aiṗ being used : ʈá ⴔuaċʈ
cṗm (cold is on me), I am cold ; ná bíoḋ eaʒla oṗʈ (let not
fear be on thee) be not afraid : do ḃí ʈaṗʈ móṗ aiṗ Shea-
ʒan (great thirst was on John), John was very thirsty · caḋ

ó ṙⁱn onc? (what is that on thee?) what ails you? A ċuⁱrle
mo ċroiḋe cneuḋ í an ṡnuaim ṙⁱn onc? "O pulse of my
heart, what is that frown on thee?"

19. One person entertaining feelings (of love, hatred, &c.) towards another.

That Donall entertains certain feelings towards Fergus is
expressed by saying that Donall *has* such feelings *on* Fergus;
the preposition aⁱn being used before "Fergus," and the act of
"having" being expressed by cá and aṡ, as in idiom 34:—ní
mó an cⁱon no ḃá aṡ Aonṡuⁱr oⁱrcⁱra ⁱná an cⁱon no ḃá aṡ
muincⁱr Aonṡuⁱra aⁱn ṁac an ṗeaċcaⁱre, ṡo ꝑⁱaⁱḃ ꝑoⁱrmaḋ
món aⁱn c'acaⁱn ꝑá n-a ċⁱonn ṙⁱn, "not greater was the affec-
tion Aonghus felt for thee than the affection the people of
Aonghus felt for the son of the steward, so that thy
father felt great jealousy on that account" (lit. "not greater
was the affection which was with Aonghus on thee, ...
so that great jealousy was on thy father on the head of that:"
see Idiom 32).

Where the agent is not specified, a similar form of expres-
sion is retained: you are loved, is expressed by love is on you:
you are esteemed, by estimation is on you, &c.: cá meaꝑ
aṡur cⁱon món aⁱn Oꝑcaⁱn (great esteem and love are on
Oscar), Oscar is greatly *esteemed and loved.*

20. To know: to know a person.

To know is usually expressed in Irish by the phrase know-
ledge is with me, I have knowledge; and to know a person
by "to have or to give knowledge on a person:" "'aṡur an
ḃ-ꝑuⁱl a ꝑⁱoⁱr aṡaḋ ꝑéⁱn, a Ꝑⁱnn?' 'ní ḃ-ꝑuⁱl,' aⁱn
Ꝑⁱonn:" "'do you know it, O Finn?' 'I do not,' says
Finn" (lit., is its knowledge with you, O Finn? It is not, says
Finn): an áⁱl leac ꝑⁱoⁱr ḃ'ꝑáṡaⁱl? do you wish to know?
("is it a desire with you knowledge to get?"): ḃⁱoḋ a ꝑⁱoⁱr
aṡac, a leuṫóⁱn, "know O reader" ("be its knowledge
with thee, O reader"): (strangers are seen coming towards
Finn and his party), no ꝑⁱaⁱꝑnaⁱṡ Ꝑⁱonn ḃo ċáċ an ḃ-cuṡa-
ḋaⁱn aⁱcne oꝑnéa, "Finn asked of the others did they know
them" (lit. "did they put knowledge on them"): aṡur cu-
ṡaⁱrre aⁱcne oꝑm, "and thou knewest me" (lit. "and thou
didst put knowledge on me").

21. To part from, to separate from.

To separate from a person is expressed in Irish by "to separate *with* a person," the preposition le or ɼe being used: much in the same manner as we say in English, "I parted with him:" ɼeanaɞan ꝑéın aʒuɼ Ꝺıaɼmaıꝺ ꝑe n-a ċéıle, "they themselves and Diarmaid separated from each other:" ꝺo ɼean Oɼcan le Ꝺıaɼmaıꝺ, "Oscar separated from Diarmaid:" ꝺo ɼean ɼıɼ, "he separated from him;" aʒ Cuꝑɼaċ Cıll'-ꝺaɼa ꝺo ɼeanaɼ le ʒɼaꝺ mo ċɼoıꝺe, "at the Curragh of Kildare I parted from the 'love of my heart.'"

22. However great, however good, however brave, &c.

Ꝺa placed before some abstract nouns gives a meaning which, though it is well understood in practical use, has puzzled grammarians to analyse and explain, and which will be best understood by a few examples. From the adjective álaınn, fine or beautiful, is formed áılne or áılle, fineness, beauty; and ꝺa áılne or ꝺa áılle, means "however fine," "how fine soever." Examples:—Ní ꝋ-ꝓuıl ꝑıonúꝑ ꝺa ṁeuꝺ, naċ ꝋ-ᴄuıl-lıꝺ, "there is no punishment however great that they do not deserve:" an ᴄꝑeaꝑ ʒeıꝑ, ʒan coṁ�011aʒ aoıꝅꝑꝓ ꝺa ᴄꝑéıꝑı aıꝑ ᴄalṁan ꝋ'oꝋaꝺ, "the third injunction, not to refuse single combat to any man on earth, however mighty:" ꝺeaṁan ná ꝺıaꝋal ꝺa ᴄꝑéıꝑe láṁ, "demon or devil, however mighty of hand."

23. Both one and another: both these and those.

Both, in such phrases as "both men and women," is often expressed in Irish by the preposition ıꝺıꝑ, between; as ꝋaın-ꝑıꝺ Ꝺıa ꝑáꝑaṁ ꝺıoꝋ ann ʒaċ ꝑoċaꝑ ꝋ'á ꝋ-ᴄuʒ ꝺóıꝋ ıꝺıꝑ ċeıll, ceaꝺꝑaꝺaıꝋ, aʒuꝑ conaċ ꝓaoʒalᴄa, "God will exact an account from them in every advantage He has given to them *between* understanding, senses, and worldly prosperity:" cúıʒ-mıle ıꝺıꝑ ꝑeaꝑaıꝺ aʒuꝑ ꝿnáıꝋ, five thousand, between men and women (i.e. both men and women, or reckoning men and women).

24. To overtake.

To overtake a person is often expressed by "to bear on a person," the verb ꝋeıꝑ, bear, being used with the preposition

aıp. Examples:—Pázbam an culaċ ro aɲ eazla zo m-beaɲpaó Clonzup an Ohnoza oɲnuınn, "let us leave this hill for fear that Aonghus of the Brugh would overtake us:" leanuʒ aıp a lonʒ zo péımóıɲeaċ ıaó ṫo'n Ṁúṁaın, zo ɲuʒ oɲɲa aʒ Solċóıó, "he follows them on their track directly to Munster, so that he overtook them at Solchoid ." zo naċ Púızɲıóıɲ an Ponn ɲın nó zo m-beıɲeaó Ṁaɲċɲa Síóe oɲɲa, "that they might not leave that territory till the fairy cavalcade should overtake them:" ranpaópa leac aɲ an láċaıp ro nó zo m-beıɲıp opm aɲíp, "I will wait for thee at this place till thou overtake me again:" zaċ aon aıp a m-beaɲpaınnɲı, "every one whom I would overtake" (" every one on whom I would bear ").

25. To win a game on a person.

To win a game on a person is expressed by " to put a game on him:" aʒup ṫo ċóʒ Oıɲín an peaɲ ɲın, aʒup po ċuıp an cluıċċe aɲ Phıonn, "and Oisin moved that (chess-) man and won a game on Finn:" aʒup ní puʒaman an báıɲe aɲ a ċéıle, "and we did not win the goal on each other" (i.e. neither of us won the goal on the other.")

26. To think long, short, well of, ill of : to think hot, cold, hateful, &c.

Such phrases as " it seemed long to him," " he thought it long," are expressed by the verb ıp and the preposition le : ıp raóa lıom (" it is long with me"), it seems long to me, I think it long. aʒup ṫo ro raóa le na óɲáıċɲıb ṫo óı bɲıan uaċa, "and his brothers thought it long that Brian was away from them" (" it was long with his brothers, &c."): ıp olc lınn aɲ beaɲ ɲıoċ, "we think bad of what has happened to thee" (" it is evil with us:" aɲ = a ɲo, and a means " all that:" see p. 47) : cuıʒımɲı naċ ıoıṁıuın leaċɲa me péın, "I understand that thou dost not love me" (" that not beloved with thee am I myself").

Observe the difference in meaning conveyed by the two prepositions le and ṫo : ıp maıċ é ṫo'n ḃ-peaɲ ɲın, it is advantageous to that man (whether he thinks it so or not) : ıp maıċ é leıp an ḃ-peaɲ ɲın, that man thinks it advantageous (whether it is really so or not). The following example shows both forms:—ba ṁaıċ lıom ɲıubaıl aċc nıoɲ ıoṁuın ṫam é, I wished to walk, but it was not good for me.

27. To wish for: to like: to be glad of: to prefer.

After the same manner, a desire, wish, liking for, &c., is expressed by such words as mian, desire; aic, pleasure; áil, will or pleasure, &c.: ιρ áill liom τιορ b'ράξαιl, I wish to know ("it is a desire with me knowledge to get"): το τυιρ-ρίnn ρέιm ρúil an οαις ριn aό h-uaις a n-ιοnaό το ρúl, aρ ρεαρ τιοό: το b'aic liom ριn, aρ an τόιρρεοιρ, "I would put the eye of that cat in thy lap in place of thy eye," says a man of them. 'I would like that,' says the door-keeper."

The word ρεαρρ, better, is used in the same way to express preference: ιρ ρεαρρ liom το beαρbράταιρ ná cupa, I prefer thy brother to thyself: I would rather have thy brother than thyself (lit. "thy brother is better with me," &c.); το b'ρεαρρ le bριξιό leabaρ maic ná aιρξεαό, Brigid would prefer a good book to money (lit. "a good book would be better with Brigid," &c.). The following example shows the application of both mian and ρεαρρ:—Ní h-é ιρ mian leiρ aρ uξαρ (ní mo, ní h-é ιρ mian liom-ρα) cu το bρευξαn; .... aέc ιρ é το το' ρεαρρ leiρ ριn (aξυρ liom-ρα) το έροιόε το ρεαlbuξαό: "it is not what the author wishes (neither is it my wish) to amuse thee (cu το bρευξαn) .... but it is what he would prefer (and I also) to possess thy heart."

Ρεαρρ followed by le expresses mental preference as shown above: but ρεαρρ followed by το is equivalent to the English expression "better for," "better that," &c. Iρ ρεαρρ τοmρα anoιρ, aρ luξ, ριορ na h-eαριca úτ το έαταιρc τυαιτ. Iρ ρεαρρ έεαna, aρ ιαταρn, 'it is *better for me* now,' says Lugh, 'a knowledge of that *eric* (fine) to give you.' 'It is better indeed,' say they."

28. To think little of—much of—to grudge.

Similar to the preceding is the use of the words beaξ and móρ (little and much) in several idiomatic phrases, which occur very frequently, and which will be best understood by the following examples:—Iρ móρ liom an luaέ ριn, I think that price large ("that price is large with me"): óιρ τά m-beιέ mac aξuιnne ιona ρuιόε ρompa, níoρ beaξ leo το τúιρ τάn maρbaό é, "for if (even) a child of us would be sitting ("in his sitting:" see Idiom 42) before them, they would not deem it (too) little cause to kill us" (lit. "it would not be with them a small [thing] for a cause to kill us:" for τάn maρbaό: see Idiom 1): ταρ mo bριαταρ aρ

Naiʀi ní beᵹ linne ʀín uaiṫ, "'by my word,' says Naisi, 'we do not think that small from thee.'"

The two expressions iʀ móʀ le and ní beaᵹ le (it is much with, it is not little with) are used to express the idea of unwillingness or grudging: iʀ móʀ liom aon ᵽinᵹín do ṫaḃaiʀʈ do, I think it much—to give one penny to him: the very same idea is expressed by ní beaᵹ liom aon ᵽinᵹín, &c., I think it not little—I grudge—one penny, I think one penny enough, &c. The two reverse expressions (ní móʀ le—iʀ beaᵹ le) are used to express willingness—not grudging, &c.: ní móʀ liom na ʈʀí ba ʀo ḃo ṫaḃaiʀʈ ḃó, I do not think it much—I am quite willing—I do not grudge—to give him these three cows; which might also be expressed by saying, iʀ beaᵹ liom, &c.—I think it little—I would give more, I would have more, I would want more; I am willing—I do not grudge, &c.—ḃo ḃeiʀmíʃ áʀ m-bʀiaʈaʀ, aʀ ʀiaḃ, naċ beaᵹ linn a m-beuʀam ᵹo Fionn ḃíoḃ, "'we give our word,' said they 'we think it not small—we grudge—what (a = all that: see p. 47) we shall bring of them to Finn.'" (See Mr. Standish O'Grady's note, in the "Pursuit of Diarmaid and Grainne," p. 140.)

When móʀ and beaᵹ are used with the preposition ḃo, they give the idea of enough or not enough *for* a person: níoʀ beaᵹ ḃo (maʀbaḃ baʀ n-aiʈʀeaċ) maʀ eiʀic uaiṫʀe, (the killing of your fathers) is not small to him—is enough for him—should suffice for him—as an *eric* (fine) from you: níoʀ beaᵹ ḃuiʈ a ḃa ḃo ḃʀeiʈ ó Ḟionn, "it was not little for you—it was enough for you—to take away his cows from Finn."

29. Woe to.

Iʀ mainᵹ ḃon ḃ-ḟeaʀ ʀín, woe to that man: a ṁainᵹ ḃo'n ḃʀunᵹ ᵹoiʀeaʀ ḃo'n olc maiṫ, "woe to those who call evil good." Expressions of this kind are sometimes elliptical; as, iʀ mainᵹ naċ n-ḃéanann coṁaiʀle ḃeaᵹ-ṁná, "woe [to him] who doeth not the counsel of a good wife" (lit. "it is woe who doeth not," &c.).

30. So .. as: as .. as.

When these "correspondent conjunctions" are expressed in Irish, the second one is usually translated either by aᵹuʀ, "and," or by le, "with:" aᵹuʀ a ḃuḃaiʀʈ ʀia an ʈan ḃo ḃíoḃ a ṁac coṁ aᵽʀaċʈa aᵹuʀ ᵹo lionʀaḃ a ṁeuʀ an loḃ, "and he said to her when his son should be *so* grown (coṁ aᵽʀaċʈa) *as* that his finger would fill the ring" (lit.

"so grown *and* that his finger," &c.): ɒo ɓí a ɼleaᵹ cóiṁ neaṁaɼ le mol muillinn, "his spear was as thick as the shaft of a mill" (lit. "as thick *with*.")

Aᵹuɼ follows aṁlaiɒ or aṁla (thus, so, in this manner), much in the same way as it follows cóiṁ; and in this use it sometimes answers very nearly to " viz.:" aɼ aṁlaiɒ ɒo ɼuaiɼ Naiɼi acaɼ Déiɼḋɼe, acaɼ an Cennċaeiṁ eɤaɼɼa, "it is thus he found Naisi and Déirdre, *and* the *Cenn-chaemh* (a kind of chess-board) between them.' (Meaning, "it was thus he found them, *viz.*, with the *Cenn-chaemh* between them.")

31. Every other day : every second day : every alternate day.

Phrases like these are often expressed in Irish by the indefinite pronoun ᵹaċ, followed by the preposition le or ɼe. Ᵹaċ le Ḋoṁnaċ aᵹ ɒul ċum ɤeampoill, going to the church every other (or every alternate) Sunday: na ɤɼí ɼíᵹċe ɼin ɒo Ċuaɤaiɒ De Ḋanann ɒo ɓí i ḃ-ɼlaiɤíoɼ Eiɼeann ᵹaċ ɼe m-ḃliaᵹain, "these three kings of the Tuatha De Danann were in the sovereignty of Erin every other year" (i.e. each for a year).

32. The Head.

The word for *head* is used in Irish, as it is in most languages, in a great variety of idiomatic phrases. Some have been already noticed among the compound propositions ; and these and others will be understood from the following examples. A ᵹ-ceann bliaḋna, at the end of a year : ɒo ɓí ɼiaɒ a ᵹ-ceann na ɼaiɤċe, they were at the end of the field. A ɒuḃaiɼɤ Naiɼi le h-Aɼɒan ɒul aiɼ ċeann Ɍeɼᵹuiɼ, "Naisi said to Ardan to go for Fergus" (" to go on the head of Fergus"): ɼillɼe aiɼ a ᵹ-ceann, "turn thou back for them" (" on their head"). O naċ liom ɒul ón ᵹ-conɤaḃaiɤ ɼo am ċeann, "since I am not able to escape from this danger [that lies] before me" (am ċeann, " in my head " = before me). Raċɼaɒ aɒ ċeann, a Ɍhinn, aᵹuɼ a ᵹ-ceann na Ɍéinne, " I will go to thee (or before thee), O Finn, and to the Feni" ("in thy head and in the head of the Feni"). Acaɼ beiɼiɒ buaiɒ acaɼ bennaċɤam ɒá ċenn, "and bear ye victory and blessing on its account" (ɒá ċenn, " from its head"). Ɤaɼ ceann ᵹuɼ ɼaoil an ɤoiceaċ naċ ɼaiḃ baoᵹal aɼ biɤ aɼ ɼéiṁ, "although the rich man thought that there was no danger at all to (i.e. of) himself" (ɤaɼ ceann ᵹuɼ, "over the head that" = although). Iɼ ionᵹna buiɤɼe an ᵹɼaɒ ɼin ɒo

ʈabaιρʈ baṁρa ʈaρ ċeann Phinn, aρ Diaρmaιd, "it is a
wonder for thee to give that love to me instead of (to) Finn'
says Diarmaid" (ʈaρ ċeann Phinn, "over the head of Finn,"
in preference to Finn, instead of Finn)

33. A proper noun with the genitive of a noun of office.*

When a proper noun is followed by a noun in the genitive
signifying a profession, office, trade, or calling, the resulting
phrase has a curious idiomatic meaning.

Seaᵹan an ḟιᵹeaḋóρa, which is word for word, "John
of the weaver," means in reality "John (the son, son-in-law,
servant, or some other close connection) of the weaver."
Seaᵹan na baιnʈρeaḃaιᵹe, "John (the son, &c.) of the
widow."

If, while the proper name is in the nominative, the second
noun is also in the nominative, the meaning is quite different,
the second noun being then in apposition to the first: thus
Peρᵹuρ maoρ (nom.) means "Fergus the steward;': but
Peρᵹuρ an ṁaoιρ (gen.) is "Fergus (the son, &c.) of
the steward."

Suppose, now, you have to express in Irish such a phrase
as "the house of Fergus the steward," in which the proper
name must be in the genitive: as the two nouns are in appo-
sition, the second, according to a rule of Syntax (Rule 6,
p. 96) should also be in the genitive: ʈeaċ Pheρᵹuρ an
ṁaoιρ. But here is an ambiguity; for, according to the
present idiom, this expression would also mean "the house of
Fergus (the son, &c.) of the steward." To avoid this am-
biguity, a disagreement in case is allowed in such expressions,
between the two nouns, when they are in apposition. Thus
"the house of Fergus the steward" is ʈeaċ Pheρᵹuρ maoρ
(in which Pheρᵹuρ is gen. and maoρ nom.); whereas ʈeaċ
Pheρᵹuρ an ṁaoιρ is understood to mean "the house of
Fergus (the son, &c.) of the steward." So in Dr. MacHale's
translation of Homer, the first two lines are rendered thus:—

Ḃρuʈ Acuιl ρeιnn, óιᵹ neaṁḋa, a'ρ buan ḟeaρᵹ;
Acuιl mιc Peιl, an ᵹaιρᵹιḃeaċ ʈeιnnʈeaċ ᵹaρᵹ.

"The wrath of Achilles sing, O heavenly virgin, and his en-
during anger, of Achilles son of Peleus, *the fiery fierce hero.*"

* The substance of this explanation and the illustrative
examples have been taken from an interesting Essay on the
present state of the Irish language in Munster, written and
sent to the Royal Irish Academy by Mr. John Fleming of
Rathgormuck.

Here the last noun ʒaiρʒiбеaċ, with its two adjectives, is in the nominative, while ᴀcuiℓ, with which it is in apposition, is genitive.

In the first example, Rule 7, p. 96, беan Sheaʒain an ḟiʒeaḋóρa, accordingly, is not "the wife of John the weaver," but "the wife of John (son, &c.) of the weaver;" the wife of John the weaver, would be expressed by беan Sheaʒain ṗiʒeaḋóiρ.

34. Possession.

There is no verb in Irish corresponding to the English verb "to have" as expressing possession; and the sentence "the man has a book," is expressed in Irish by the verb ᴄá and the preposition aʒ, in this form, ᴄá ℓeaḃaρ aʒ an ᴅuine, "a book is at (or with) the man:" ᴄá aiρʒeaḋ aʒum ("money is with me"), I have money: cia ḃé aʒ a ḃ-ḟuiℓ aiρʒeaḋ ("whoever with whom is money"), whoever has money. Ní ḟéiᴅiρ ℓe ᴅuine an níḋ naċ m-beiḋeaḋ aiʒe ᴅo ᴄaḃaiρᴄ uaiḋ, aʒuρ ní ḃ-ḟuiℓ ᴅo-ṁaρḃᴄaċᴄ aʒumρa, "it is impossible for a man to give away what he does not possess, and I do not possess immortality" (word-for-word: "it is not possible for a man the thing which would not be with him to give from him, and is not immortality with myself"). ᴅo aiʒeℓ Conċuḃaρ boρaċ acaρ ᴅo ṗiaρρaiʒ ḃé an ρaiḃ ḟℓeḋ oℓℓaṁ aiʒe ᴅo, "Conchobhar addressed Borach and inquired of him whether he had a feast prepared for him" (lit. "whether a feast was ready with him [i.e. Borach] for him [i.e. Conchobar.]"

The use of pronouns in this idiom sometimes gives rise to further idiomatic complications. Cia aʒuinne aʒ a ḃ-ḟuiℓ an ṗiρinne? "Which of us has the truth?" This is word forward: "Which of us with whom is the truth?" and the interrogative appears without any government or other syntactical connection. Some good authorities believe that the preposition aʒ in this construction governs not only the relative a, but also, by a sort of attraction, the interrogative cia. ᴄá beaɴ eiℓe a n-Eoċaiℓℓ a ḃ-ṗuiℓ aici coρóin aiρ, "there is another woman in Youghal who has a crown on him" (i.e. to whom he owes a crown : Idiom 16). Here, also, there is an apparent redundancy, the act of "having" being expressed doubly, namely, both by the relative a before ḃ-ḟuiℓ, and by aici; and the relative, according to the same authority, would be governed by the preposition aʒ of aici. The sentence may be expressed without redundancy in this manner :—ᴄá beaɴ

eile a n-Ceócaill aʒ a b-ḟuil conóin aip. The last ex-
ample exactly resembles the English "there is a man in Dublin
whom I owe a pound to him:" and perhaps it would be
better to consider it, like the English sentence, merely as bad
grammar, which is to be avoided by using a different form of
expression in the manner shown. The apparent redundancy
of the first example, which is from a good authority, cannot,
however, be got rid of in this way. So also in, cia leip an
ceaċ pin (who owns that house), the le of leip would ap-
pear to govern the pronoun with which it is combined, and
also the interrogative cia.

35. Ownership.

Ownership is expressed by the verb ip and the preposition
le, with: ip leacpa an ceaċ, "the house belongs to thee"
(lit. "it is with thee the house"): ip lem' acaip na ba pin,
those cows belong to my father ("it is with my father those
cows"): cia léip na ba pin, who owns those cows? ("who
with him [are] those cows?") Oip ip le neaċ éiʒin bo
Ċhuaca De Danann na muca, "for the pigs belong to
some person of the Tuatha De Danann." (A wizard holds a
golden branch in his hand, and king Cormac asks him) an
leac péin an ċpaob pin? "Does that branch belong to
thyself?"
Observe the distinction between this idiom and the last in
the following sentence:—Ca aipʒeab ʒo leóp aʒab, aċt ní
leac péin é, "thou hast plenty of money, but it does not
belong to thyself."

36. Wanting a thing.

The idea of wanting a thing, including a wish to get it, is
usually expressed by the verb cá and the preposition ó from:
ca leabap uaim, I want a book: lit., "a book is from me:"
cpeub acá uaic? "What dost thou want?"

37. Genitive plurals of Personal Pronouns.

Each of the three prepositional pronouns, aʒainn, aʒaib,
aca, has two different meanings, which are always easily
distinguished by the context.
1. Possession, as in Idiom 34: Do bí leabaip aca, they
had books.
2. The sense of a genitive plural when following words de-
noting a part: ʒaċ ḟeap aʒuinn, "each man of us;" ṗo
eipiʒ an baṅa ḟeap acopan bo béanaṁ an ċleapa, "the

second man *of them* (aċoran, "of themselves") arose to perform the feat:" cia aᵹuinne aᵹ a b-ꝼuil an ꝼírinne, aꞃ Ꝼionn, "'which *of us* has the truth,' says Finn" (aᵹ a b-ꝼuil, "with whom is" = "has:" see Idiom 34).

38. To give a name.

To give a name to a thing is often expressed in Irish by *to put a name on it*: maꞃ ᵹo ctuᵹċaꞃ bá banctuaċaḋ aiꞃ Ḃéċoill aᵹuꞃ aiꞃ Ḋhanann, "as (the name) 'two ladies' was put on Bechoill and Danann: i.e. as they "were called 'two ladies.'" Maꞃ ᵹo b-tuᵹ clear aiꞃ an ᵹ-clear ꞃin, "as he called that feat ' a feat:'" (lit. "as that he put [the name] 'feat' on that feat").

Sometimes, also, to give such and such a name to a thing is expressed by "to say such and such a name with a thing:" Roꞃ-bá-ꞃáileaċ ꞃiꞃ a ꞃáiḋtear Luimneaċ aniu, "Ros-da-shaileach which is called Limerick now" (lit. "R. with which is said ' Limerick' now").

39. Ḋe after comparatives.

The prepositional pronoun be " of it," is often postfixed to comparatives, giving rise to some idiomatic phrases. Aᵹuꞃ ᵹion ᵹo b-ꝼuil cuib aᵹuinn bo maꞃbaḋ Ḋiaꞃmaba, ní móibe bo ᵹeubaḋ (Aonᵹuꞃ) an ꝼírinne uainn, "and although we have no part in killing Diarmaid, Aongus would not *the more* receive the truth from us" (here móibe is be added to mó, the comparative of móꞃ, great: for ᵹion ᵹo= "although not:" see Idiom 11). Iꞃ ꝼuraibe b'Ꝼhionn áꞃ loᵹꞃa leanaṁain, an eaċꞃa beiċ aᵹainn, "it is the easier for Finn to follow our track that we have the horses" (ꝼuraibe = be after ꝼuꞃa, comparative of ꝼuꞃuꞃ, easy): i.e. "our having the horses makes it easier for Finn," &c.

40. "A man of great strength."

"A man of great strength," is expressed by the Irish ꝼeaꞃ iꞃ móꞃ neaꞃc, which translated word for word is "a man (who) is great strength:" the words móꞃ neaꞃc being in the nominative, and not in the genitive, as might be expected from the English *of* great strength." This idiom is extremely common in Irish, the verb iꞃ in some of its forms being always used; and when translating it, remember that the Irish words, though in the nominative case, convey the exact sense of the genitive with "of" in English, and must be

rendered accordingly. Ní ɼaib a ʒ-cómaimɼiɼ ɼiɼ ɼeaɼ ba mó óɼ aʒuɼ aiɼʒeaᵭ ιɴᵭ Διαɼmaιᵭ, "there was not at the same time with him a man who had more gold and silver than Diarmaid" (lit. "a man [who] was greater gold and silver," i.e. "a man who was *of* greater gold and silver.") Ꝺo ᵭeaɼcaɼ an beιᷓ ba mamᵭa cɼuᷓ, "I saw a lady (of) bright shape:" Ꞇalam ba ᷓɼeun neaɼᵭ a'ɼ luᷓ, "Oisin of mighty strength and vigour."

Sometimes the preposition ʒo (with) is used instead of the verb: as ɼeaɼ ʒo móɼ neaɼᵭ, a man *with* great strength, i.e. a man of great strength.

41. A wish.

"I wish I had such and such a thing," is often expressed in Irish by some such form of phrase as "Alas that I have not got it." the word ʒan being generally used as the negative particle. Aɼ ᷓɼuaιʒ ʒan peaᵭa 'n maoιɼ aʒum! "I wish I had the shepherd's pet!" (Here aɼ ᷓɼuaιʒ, "it is pity" = "alas:" aʒum is used to denote possession, with its verb understood—Idiom 34: and the word-for-word translation is "it is pity not the pet of the shepherd with me." A Ꝺhιa ʒan mé am' aᵬaιllín, "I wish I were an apple" ("O God, I not an apple"—or "in my apple.")

42. One noun asserted of another by ᷓá.

When one noun is asserted of another (or of a pronoun) by the verb ᷓá, in any of its forms, it requires the aid of the preposition a or ann, 'in,' and of one of the possessive pronouns, giving rise to a unique and extremely curious idiom. Thus "I am a man," if expressed in Irish by ᷓá, will be (not ᷓá mé ɼeaɼ, but) ᷓá mé am' ɼeaɼ, which is word for word, "I am in my man." bí ᷓúɼa aᵬ' ɼʒιan aʒuɼ mιɼe am ɼeoιl, "be thou the knife and I the flesh." (lit. "be thou in thy knife and I in my flesh"). beᷓoιll aʒuɼ Ꝺanann ᵭo ᵬí ι n-a m-baιnᷓʒeaɼnaιᵭ, "Bechoill and Danann who were princesses" ("who were in their princesses"): ιɼ ɼeaᵭɼ éιɼean míle uaιɼ ná ᷓuɼa, cuιɼ a ʒ-cáɼ ʒo ᵬ-ɼuιl ᷓú aᵬ' ɼιʒ no aᵬ' ɼɼιonnɼa. "he is better a thousand times than thou, even supposing that thou art a king or a prince" (cuιɼ a ʒ-cáɼ, "put in case" = "suppose" or "although"): ɼaʒaιᵭ na ᵭaoιne báɼ, cuιᵭ aca 'n-a

n-óʒánaıḃ, aʒuꞃ cuıḃ aca 'n-a ꞃeanóıꞃıʒıḃ, "men die ('re-
ceive death:' Idiom 3), "some of them (cuıḃ aca: Idiom
37) as youths, and some as old men" ("some of them in
their youths and some of them in their old men.") Ⓐ Ⅾ ḣıa,
ʒan mé am aḃaıllín!" "would God that I were an apple!"
("O God without me in my apple!").

Even when one thing is not directly asserted of another,
this use of the preposition and the possessive is extremely
common in Irish. Ⓣ áımꞃe am' ċoḋla, "I am asleep" ("I
am in my sleep"): ḃ'éıꞃıʒ ına ꞃeaꞃaṁ, "he stood up" ("he
arose in his standing"): mıꞃe am' aonaꞃ, "myself alone"
("myself in my one person"): clanna Ⅼıꞃ ına ʒ-ceaṫꞃaꞃ,
(the four children of Lir) ("the children of Lir in their
four-persons").

The preposition ann is used with ⱦa without any governed
noun, to denote existence in general; as aⱦá aon Ⅾ ıa
aṁáın ann, there is only one God; here the ann in the
end, which has no representative in the translation, means
"in it," i. e. in existence. Sometimes this ann answers very
nearly to the English "here," or "there;" as ıꞃ ⱦú aⱦá ann
"it is thou who art in it—who art in existence—who art
there."

43. Differences between ıꞃ and ⱦá.

There are several differences, as to the manner of application,
between ıꞃ and ⱦá.

1. Ⅰꞃ is a simple copula, and is used to predicate one thing
of another, or to connect an attribute with its subject; as
ıꞃ mé an ⱦ-ꞃlıʒe, an ꞃ̇ıꞃınne, aʒuꞃ an ḃeaṫa, "I am the
way, the truth, and the life."

But if existence in connection with place is to be predicated
of the subject, ⱦá is used; as ⱦá mé a m-baıle aⱦa clıaṫ,
I am in Dublin : an ꞃaıḃ ⱦú ann ꞃın ? wert thou there ?

If an adjective is to be predicated of a noun, either ıꞃ or
ⱦá may be used:—ıꞃ bꞃeaʒ an lá ó, or ⱦá an lá bꞃeaʒ,
"it is a fine day," or "the day is fine."

2. Ⅰꞃ connects one noun or pronoun with another, as
predicate and subject directly, and without the aid of any
other word; as ıꞃ ꞃeaꞃ mé, I am a man. But ⱦá cannot do
this without the aid of the preposition ı or ınn and the
possessive pronoun, as already explained in last Idiom; as ⱦá
mé am' ꞃeaꞃ, I am a man ("I am in my man.")

3. ⁊ expresses simply that a person or thing is so, and implies nothing more. But when the assertion is made by τά, there is *often* something more implied than is contained in the direct assertion—the idea that the person or thing has not always been so—has come to be so, &c. Thus, if you say to me ⁊ ꝼeaⁿ é, your assertion means nothing more than that "he is a man"—not a woman or a coward, &c. If we see a figure approach in the dark, and that after looking close you find it is a man, your correct phraseology is, ⁊ ꝼeaⁿ é, by which I understand you to mean "it is a man"—not a woman, or a beast, or a ghost.

But if you say to me τα ꝛé 'n-a ꝼeaⁿ ("he is in his man"), here I take you to mean a very different thing—that he is now a man, no longer a boy, grown up to be a man. If I were speaking of a person as if he were a mere boy, and that you wished to correct this false impression, the proper phraseology would be, τα ꝛé 'n-a ꝼeaⁿ.

But though this idea of an implied change is often contained in an assertion made by τá, it is not always so; as ní ḃ-ꝼuil aċτ aon Ðia aṁáin ann, aτá 'n-a ꝛioꞃ-ꞃꝛoꞃaiᵭ, there is only one God alone, who is a pure spirit: here the last assertion is made by τá though there can be no change.

4. τá is used with aᵹ to denote possession (Idiom 43); ⁊ is used with le to denote ownership (Idiom 44); in these two applications the two verbs cannot change places.

τá may indeed be used with le, but the idea conveyed is not "belonging to," but "being favourable to:" Ðo ḃí Colur leo " (Eolus was with them"), does not mean that they were the owners of Eolus (which would be the meaning if ⁊ had been used), but that "Eolus was favourable to them"—"was on their side."

5. τá is used with the Irish words for cold, heat, hunger, &c., as in Idiom 36; as τá ocꞃaꞃ oⁿm, hunger is in me, I am hungry: here ⁊ cannotᵗ be used.

6. When the comparative of an adjective is used in the following sentences, either verb will answer :—⁊ ꞃaiᵭḃꞃe é ná mⁱꞃe or τá ꞃé mⁿ ꞃaiᵭḃꞃe ná mⁱꞃe, he is richer than I.

But when the superlative is employed, ⁊, not τá, must be used :—⁊ é ⁊ ꝼeaⁿ ⁊ ꞃaiᵭḃꞃe ꞃan ḃúⁱττe é, he is the richest man in the country.

APPENDIX.

ADDITIONAL EXAMPLES OF DECLENSIONS.

FIRST DECLENSION.

bṙeac, *a trout.*

	Singular.	Plural.
N.	bṙeac.	bṙic.
G.	bṙic.	bṙeac.
D.	bṙeac.	bṙeacaiḃ.
V.	a ḃṙic.	a ḃṙeaca.

SECOND DECLENSION.

Cor, *a foot.*

N.	cor.	cora.
G.	coire.	cor.
D.	coir.	coraiḃ.

THIRD DECLENSION.

Fiġeaḋóir, *a weaver; masc.*

N.	fiġeaḋóir.	fiġeaḋóiriże.
G.	fiġeaḋóra.	fiġeaḋóiri.
D.	fiġeaḋóir.	fiġeaḋóiriḃ.

Aṫair, *a father; masc.*

N.	aṫair.	aiṫre, aiṫre-aḋa.
G.	aṫar.	aiṫreaḋ.
D.	aṫair.	aiṫreaḋaiḃ.

(**Máṫair**, a mother, and **bráṫair** or **bearbṙáṫair**, a brother, are declined in the same way.)

bliaḋain, *a year; fem.*

N.	bliaḋain.	bliaḋanta.
G.	bliaḋna.	bliaḋan.
D.	bliaḋain.	bliaḋantaiḃ.

Ainm, *a name.*

N.	ainm.	anmanna.
G.	ainme, anma.	anmann.
D.	ainm	anmannaiḃ.

FOURTH DECLENSION.

Teine, *a fire.*

	Singular.	Plural.
N.	teine.	teinte.
G.	teine.	teineaḋ.
D.	teine.	teintiḃ.

Einín, *a little bird.*

N.	éinín.	éinínide.
G.	éinín.	éinín.
D.	éinín.	éininiḃ.

FIFTH DECLENSION.

Lánaṁa, *a married couple.*

N.	lánaṁa.	lánaṁna.
G.	lánaṁan.	lánaṁan.
D.	lánaṁain.	lánaṁnaiḃ.

IRREGULAR NOUNS.

Ġa, *a spear.*

N.	ża, żaċ.	żaoi, żaeṫa, żaoiċte.
G.	żai, żaoi.	żaċ, żaeṫaḋ, żaoiċeaḋ.
D.	ża, żai.	żaoiḃ, żeaṫai żaoiċiḃ.

Cró, *a hut, a sheepfold.*

N.	cró.	craoiċe, cróiċ…
G.	cró.	cró.
D.	cró.	craoiċiḃ, cró…ċiḃ.
V.	a ċro.	a craoiċe, a cróiċe.

Sliaḃ, *a mountain.*

N.	pliaḃ.	pléiḃte.
G.	pléiḃe.	pléiḃteaḋ.
D.	pliaḃ.	pléiḃtiḃ.